This Copy of Secure an all English Gramman Gleg Poetry By Richard LONDON: PRINTED BY SPOTTISWOODE AND CO., NEW-STREET EQUARE AND PARLIAMENT STREET Belongs to Pundel-

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR, STYLE,

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PODTRY:

WITH CHAPTERS ON

STYLE AT DIFFERENT PERIODS, AND ORIGINAL COMPOSITION;

to which is added

ADVICE TO THE STUDENT ON THE ATTAINMENT AND APPLICATION OF KNOWLEDGE.

nr

RICHARD HILES

AUTHOR OF "THE ELEMENTS OF WITCHNIAH" DEL.

"A compelent Grammalical Inoucledge V our own language to the true foundation upon which all Literature, project to galed, ought to be gained."

NEW EDITION.

LONDON:

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

PREFACE.

By arranging the various Rules and Principles of a Language in a Systematic Form, permanency and precision are given to what would, otherwise, either be subject to fluctuation or involved in obscurity. By this means, also, the relative importance and connection of the different Rules become clearly ascertained, so that the whole can be more easily acquired and retained, and applied with correctness and facility. Nor can any one who duly considers our language as derived from a great variety of sources, and, consequently, possessing many peculiarities, fail to be convinced that the shortest, as well as the safest mode of acquiring a knowledge of its structure and properties, must be by the study of a system in which they are explained and illustrated.

Notwithstanding the obvious importance of English Grammar, the systematic study of its principles was, till lately, entirely neglected in the leading classical schools of this country. A very different mode has long prevailed in Germany. There, the vernacular language occupies its appropriate position, forming an essential branch of instruction in the highest schools. In England, also, a decided improvement has, in this respect, recently taken place, as many institutions, formerly adverse to the measure, have incorporated this branch as a part of their curriculum.

It is, however, no longer a question whether or not English Grammar shall form a branch of regular study:— Reason, experience, and popular conviction have decided upon its utility. The various Societies, too, formed for the diffusion of religious and literary knowledge have powerfully contributed to render it an object of increasing cultivation. In addition to these considerations, the recently instituted Competitive and other public Examinations have imparted such a stimulus to Composition and Public Speaking, as to render it imperative on every gentleman to acquire, along with a knowledge of the Classics, a correct and graceful English Diction.

The present Work aims at supplying the Middle and Upper Classes of schools with an efficient practical course of study on all the subjects which it embraces;—namely, Grammar, Style, and Poetry. By carefully excluding everything unimportant, and studiously condensing my materials, nothing, it is believed, of real utility has been omitted. At the close, is appended Advice to the Student on the Improvement of the Understanding and the Formation of good Mental Habits. This portion has been drawn up principally for the benefit of Private Students. To persons who have completed the preceding course, and are qualified for entering upon a wider range, either in Etymology, Style, or Poetry, suitable authors are recommended in the proper places.

In the prosecution of my task, I have constantly borne in mind the legitimate claims and bearing of each department. Thus, in a work professedly devoted to modern English, as a Grammar should be, it would evidently have been irrelevant to enter deeply into the history and minute changes which our language has undergone from the period of the Saxons to the present time. Sufficient for all useful purposes has been inserted from p. 85 to p. 109. Ampler details on the subject would have been inconsistent, as belonging to Philology, and not to Modern Grammar. For additional information the student is referred to Bosworth's "Saxon Grammar," Harrison's "Rise and Progress of the English Language," Welsford on the English Language, Stoddart's "Universal Grammar," Latham's "Handbock," Oswald's "Etymology," and Richardson's Dictionary.

For a similar reason it would have been equally indicative of bad taste to swell the volume by the incorporation of thousands of words derived from the Latin and Greek languages. Useful Lists of this description are already abundant, and appended to various spelling-books and dictionaries.

Another point not to be undervalued at the present day is, that, as Education progresses, information of a more substantial and valuable kind than formerly, as well as superior methods in communicating that information, will be in constant demand. Hence, Books, which have justly been characterized the machinery of schools, must be drawn up, not only to impart the required knowledge, but also, as far as possible, to imbue the mind of the student with a desire for prosecuting the subject beyond the limits of the rudimentary treatise.

In accordance with these remarks, therefore, I have, in the composition of this work (the labour of upwards of twelve years), aimed at combining clearness of arrangement and appropriateness of clucidation with practical efficiency. Disquisitions which would have been uninteresting, or too intricate for youth have been studiously excluded. The results only, rather than the process by which these results were deduced, have been recorded. In the construction of the different Rules and Definitions, care has been taken to render them as exact and comprehensive, and, at the same time, as concise and perspicuous, as the nature of the subject would admit.

In order that the rules and definitions might be the more clearly understood by the pupil, observations, tending to illustrate or confirm them, are subjoined, as occasion seemed to require. These observations are not thrown to the foot of the page, but inserted immediately under the rule which they are intended to clucidate, as, by this means, the connection between the two is preserved, and the subject rendered more easy of apprehension and retention. These subsidiary observations, also, are distinguished from the primary rules by a difference of type.

1721

In conclusion, let me not follow the pernicious practice of many who, by ignoring the meritorious labours of their predecessors, assume exclusively to themselves what in fairness ought to be participated in by others. Justice to whom justice is due, is and ought to be, in this as in other things, the maxim of every honest mind. I, therefore, at once admit my deep obligations in Grammar, generally, to Murray, Lowth, and Crombie; in Etymology to Webster, Dr. Johnson, Horne Tooke, Oswald, Stoddart, and Richardson; in Style, Criticism, and Figurative Language to Campbell, Blair, and Whately; in Poetry to the "Quarterly" and "Edinburgh" Reviews, and to Sir Walter Scott; and for various useful hints, to the authors of several minor publications.

The work in the ninth edition has been carefully revised, and augmented by two additional lessons on Style, and the entire chapter on Poetry. The aim, throughout, has been to render it a valuable digest of everything really useful on all the subjects which it professes to discuss.

THORP-ARCH-GRANGE: Jan. 10, 1859.

Note to the Tenth Edition.—A new edition of this work having been called for in the short space of eight months is, to the Author, a gratifying proof of its increasing usefulness and popularity. It may not be superfluous, on the present occasion, to state, that a short time ago, 1000 copies of this Grammar and 1000 of the English Composition were ordered by the Authorities for the use of the schools and colleges in Hindostan.

THORP-ARCH-GRANGE: Sept. 20, 1259.

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THE NINETEERTH EDITION.

In the brings that the effect week, beveral alterations none made to mit the increased provincements of the times-Patended cure and labour have been bestoned on the tiretention of the present or Nincteenth Edition, or as to render the holematica net call theneuglife prestral, but to made that the walls, with its composed a sciuma of Rivered at Calif form a truly efficient Course of Institution en the inflects dismost, without the all of any other treation. Such chapters, therefore, in the former edition as, en mature consideration, property leither to hil elicate fillico positiveness, or to be encognitive of improvement, have le en receit and rewritten. There eight the "Bemerle en the Meets and Tenses," the discreptions on " Parity, Propriety, Different Kinds of Style, Style at Different Periods, Study of Good Medels, and Original Composition." Several of there have been much expanded. The List of World with appropriate Prepositions annexed has been considerably enlarged, to as now to embrace all er nearly all the words in general use. This list will be found of great utility in Composition. Style at Different Periods new includes the general characteristics of each, with the names of the chief writers, and a chost account of their principal works. The Index also has been considerably enlarged to facilitate reference, and firm a neeful auxiliary in relfexamination.

The lessons on the Derivation and History of the English Language will supply much information on those interesting subjects. Various improvements have been effected in Versification, Specimens of Style, Synonyms, and in other portions of the volume.

The work has now been brought to such a state as to render further alterations unnecessary, and has, therefore, been again stereotyped.

Revised, improved, and re-stereotyped editions of the following have recently been published:—

_		s.	d.
	1. English Grammar, Style, and Poetry, 23d Edition .	3	G
	2. Abridgment of the same, with Questions and Exer-		
	cises on Parsing and the Structure of Sentences .	1	9
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	cises	1	0
	4. Questions and Exercises adapted to the 23d Edition		
	of the Grammar, with Exercises on the Analysis		
	of Sentences	2	G

The preceding form a connected, graduated, and thoroughly practical series of Grammatical Works, adapted to the most approved modes of modern Instruction. They are extensively adopted both in Great Britain and the Colonies.

DONCASTER: November 1867.

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NOTICE TO THE TEACHER.

THE RULES AND OBSERVATIONS throughout the work are printed in three distinct sizes of type, according to their importance.

Those printed in the large type, together with all the declensions and conjugations, should be studied consecutively; and, either be committed to memory, or otherwise well impressed upon the mind. The Notes, which serve either as illustrations of the preceding Rules, or contain observations which, though necessary, are of secondary importance, are printed in two smaller types, and intended merely to be read. The whole of Grammar must be thus completed before the pupil commences Style. With young pupils, the History of the English Language might be deferred till Punctuation has been finished.

The remaining portions of the work, embracing Figurative Language, Perspicuity, Energy, Harmony of Expression, Sequence of Sentences, Different Kinds of Style, and Poetry, are also printed in three sizes of type; the information printed in the small type being intended either to illustrate the rules printed in the large type, or to form a second course. The whole should be acquired, in the same manner as the preceding part. The Specimens of Style should be studied according to the Directions, p. 255.

Questions on every paragraph of the work, from the commencement to the close of "Advice to the Student," together with appropriate Exercises, whenever necessary, are given in the Volume of Exercises.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

LESSON 1.—Exercise 1.—Pege 1.

11. a. LANGUAGE is the expression of our thoughts and feelings, and is either oral or written. Oral language is the expression of our ideas by intelligible sounds, called words. Written language is the representation of significant sounds by means of letters or characters. Letters are combined to form syllables; Syllables, to form words; Words, to form sentences; and Sentences, to form a discourse.

6. By eral language, we communicate our thoughts to those who are present; by printer language, we can convey them to the most distant regions, as well as to future generations.

2. As Language is composed of words which are derived from various sources, and subject to numerous modifications and combinations, the necessity of *uniformity* of expression would naturally suggest itself to every reflecting mind. Hence, attention was early paid by the Greeks and Romans to a recognised mode of construction which should convey the meaning intended with the greatest accuracy. The system which comprises the rules and principles intended to secure uniformity or accuracy of expression is called *Grammar*. Those principles which are applicable to all lauguages constitute what is termed *Universal Grammar*, while those which are confined to one are called *Particular Grammar*.

3. The three branches concerned with Language are Grammar, Logic, and Rhetoric. +

Ja. Grammar supplies those rules of inflection, agreement, government, and combination of words which enable us to convey our meaning with clearness and certainty. It is not concerned about the truth or falsily of our sentiments. We may, for instance, assert that for a fact which is not a fact. This error must be rectified by other means than what are afforded by Grammar. Our Reasoning also may be inconclu-

sive, though expressed with strict grammatical propriety. For the correction of this, we must have recourse to Logic. What Grammar, therefore, purposes to accomplish is, to enable us to convey our meaning in such a way as to render it impossible to be misunderstood by any competent honest mind.

b. Logic supplies rules for reasoning to secure the mind from error in its deductions. The rules of Logic have nothing to do with the truth or falsity of the Premiss, or that which forms the basis of an argument, except when this basis is the conclusion of some former argument. The degree of evidence for any proposition or sentiment which we assume as the Premiss or foundation of our argument, is not to be learned from Logic, nor indeed from any one distinct science, but must be decided by our knowledge of the subject itself. Thus, none but a Naturalist can rightly judge of the degree of evidence for a proposition in Natural History; a Politician in Politics, &c. To arrive at truth in any argument, not only must the Premiss be correct, but the reasoning must be fairly drawn from it. This latter process is the appropriate province of Logic.

c. Rhetoric is the art of correct and elegant composition in Prose, addressed both to the understanding and the feelings. It commences where Grammar in strictness ends. Of this comprehensive subject, only the following branches will be explained in this work, namely, Perspicuity, Strength, and Euphony of expression, Figurative Language, and Style. Perspicuity may be regarded as common to Grammar and Rhetoric.

LESSON 2.-Exercise 2.-Page 2.

1. a. English Grammar is a collection of the most approved rules and principles of inflection and construction of modern English, arranged in a systematic order. It thus teaches what

is, and not what ought to be, the Language.

b. Several expressions formerly in current use have ccased to be employed by good writers, and hence, they are not recognised forms of Modern Grammar. These have become obsolde, either because more expressive or more rimple forms have been preferred. A knowledge of such as exist in old writers may be necessary to understand their works, but, in other respects, they are merely noted to be avoided. (See 612, 621.)

f 2. In English, as in other languages, there exist two modes of expression; namely, the colloquial or familiar, and the written or more approved mode. It is by the latter, as being more determinate and certain than the former, that the rules or forms of Grammar are determined.

(3. English Grammar is divided into Fivo Parts; namely, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, Punctuation, and Proceedy.

1. Orthography explains the nature and sounds of letters, their combination into syllables and words, and the just method of spelling words.

2. Etymology explains the classification, inflection, and deri-

vation of words.

3. Syntax explains the agreement, government, connection, and proper arrangement of words in a sentence.

4. Punctuation explains the mode of marking a written composition into sentences, clauses, and members, by means of points or stops.

5. Prosody explains the nature of the Accent and Quantity of syllables, of Emphasis, Pauses, and Tones, and of the laws of

Versification.

³6. Perspicuity (which belongs both to Grammar and Rhetoric) supplies rules for the use of such words and phrases, and for such an arrangement of them, as shall convey our ideas with clearness and accuracy.

PART I.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

4. a. ORTHOGRAPHY explains the nature and sounds of letters, their combination into syllables and words, and the just method of spelling words.

b. Orthography is a term derived from op60s (orthos), correct, and ypache (grapho), I write.—Orthography refers to the proper spelling of words, Orthogry to the pronunciation of them. The former is applicable to language as written, the latter to language as spoten.

OF LETTERS.

- 5. Letters are marks or characters used to represent the elementary sounds of language.
- 6. a. The Letters of the English language, called the English Alphabet, are twenty-six in number, and are thus arranged:—

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Roman. Italic. Old Eng. Saxon.
Cap. Sm. Cap. Sm. Cap. Sm. Cap. Sm.
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- b. The term Alphabet is formed from the first two Greek letters, Alpha, Beta, and denotes the order in which the letters are written.
- c. In old books, J and U seldom occur; I being substituted for J, and V for U. But this practice is now, very properly, obsolete.
- d. Wis a double u, and Ya double i. W was at first rr. The double i was formerly written ii; and at the end of words the last i was lengthened into j, and thus ij became y. The ij, as a double i, appears in the Roman numerals of our early printed books; thus, eight is marked VIIJ.
- e. Both in writing and in print, letters have two forms, capitals and small letters. Capitals (or head letters) are used only at the beginning of the first word after a period; the names of the Deity; the proper names of persons, places, &c., and adjectives derived from them; and the words I, O, Oh! and in other places mentioned under Ponetnation. Small letters form the body of the Composition.
- f. Letters, which in pronunciation are not counded, are said to be silent; as, n in hymn.—The counds which letters have in the Alphabet are called the name counds; as 5, c, 1, v, 0, B, C, D, &c.

7. The Greek Alphabet:—

	1. The O/C	ch zuphaoci		
Α	a Alpha,	Η η Ēίa.	N v Nu.	Τ τ Ταυ.
	B Leta.	Θ θ Thēta.	$X \notin Xi$.	Y v Upsīlon.
\mathbf{r}	γ Gamma.	I ι Tota.	O o Omicron.	φφ Phi.
Δ	δ Delta.	К к Карра.	$\Pi = Pi$.	$\mathbf{X} \propto Chi$.
E	€ Epsilon.	$\Lambda \lambda Lambda$.	P P Rho.	Ψ ψ Psi.
Z	🕻 Zēta.	М μ Ми.	🗵 o s Sigma.	Ω ω Oměga.
				-

8. Letters are divided into vowels and consonants.

A round is a letter that forms one complete or continuous sound; as, a, c, o.

A consonant makes only an imperfect sound of itself; as, b, c, f, which cannot be distinctly articulated unless they are joined to a vowel, either before or after them. Hence, they are called consonants; from the Latin con, together, sonans, sounding.

The vowels are a, c, i, o, u; and w and y, when they do not begin a word or syllable. When w and y do begin a word or syllable, they are of the nature of semi-roucls.

9. a. The consonants are b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, r, x, z.

6. Commants may be divided into the following classes:-

1. The mutes, so called because they cannot be sounded without putting a rowel before or after them, are sub-divided into fats and thorps; as,

Flat. b, d, g, v, z, as in tabe, dake, good, rile, renith.

Starp. p, t, k, f, e, as in papa, talk, Ling, fright, rell.

2. Liquids. I, m, n, r, so called from readily combining with other letters.

2. II, called aspirate, is simply a breathing.

4. e, j, and q are redundant, as their sounds can be represented by other letters; thus, e in calm by k; in city by s; j in jest by g. Q is used only with u coming after it, and is equivalent to kee; as, in quantity. X is a double consonant, equal to ks.

c. The Mutes and Liquids may also be arranged according to the organs by which they are sounded; thus:—

Labials, or lip-letters, are b, r, f, p. Denials, or tooth-letters, are d, l, s, x, and soft g and f.

Gutterals, or throat-letters, are k, q, and e and g hard.

Nasals, or nose-letters, are m, n. Linguals, or tongue-letters, are l, r.

10. A diphthong is the union of two vowels in one compound sound; as, on in ounce.

The term diphthony (from di, double, philongos, voice,) is properly applied only to those combinations in which both vowels are counded, as of in both. Those combinations, in which only one of the vowels is counded, might be designated digraphs or double triling, as ea in breath. The vowels in these digraphs or improper diphthougs had formerly their separate and distinctive pronunciation; but, in lapse of time, one of them has lost its original influence.

11. A triphthong is the union of three vowels in one compound sound; as, iew in view.

LESSON 3.—Exercise 3.—Page 2.

The Sounds of the Vowels.

- 12. A has four sounds; 1, long (-), as, in pale; 2, short (0), as, in falt; 3, open, or Italian, as, th, in falter; 4, broad (^), like au, as, in falt. The diphthong aa is short, as, in Canadn: but sometimes it is sounded as if in two syllables, as, in Bāāl. Ae has the sound of long e, as, Cāzsar; Ai of long a, as, in pall, tall, except plaid, again, raillery, Britain, mountain, and a few others. Au has generally the sound of the broad a, as, in taught; sometimes of the short or open a, as, in aunt, jaunt, &c.; sometimes au is sounded like long o in hautboy, but like short o in laurel, laudanum, &c. Au has the sound of broad a, as, in baul. Ay has the long slender sound of a, as, in pay, except quay, pronounced key. Tacht is pronounced yel.
- 18. E has three sounds; a long sound, as, in schēme; a short one, as, in mên; and an obscure one, as, in open; sometimes it has the sound of middle a, as, in clerk; sometimes of short i, as, in England. E, at the end of a word, either softens the preceding consonant, as in rage; or lengthens the preceding vowel, as, pin, pine. Ea is generally sounded like e long, as, in appear; sometimes it has the short sound of e, as, in breath; and sometimes of long a, as, in break; or of a in far, as, in heart. Eau has the sound of long o, as, in beau; but in beauty and its compounds, it has the sound of long v. Ei has generally the sound of long a, as, in vein; frequently of long e, as, in seize; sometimes of short i, as, in foreign.—In final en unaccented, the e is generally suppressed, as, in seven, heaven. Eo is pronounced like ē long, as, in people; sometimes like short ē; as, in Hopard; as short û, as, in dungeon, surgeon, &c.; as o long in yeóman. Eu and eva have the sound of long û, as, in Lud, deu;—in eu, shew, &c. ew sounds like long o. Ey, when accented, sounds like a long, as, in vey, except in key, ley; ey, unaccented, sounds like e long, as, in valley. E final in unaccented forms a short syllable; as, in apocope, epitômê, recipé, synéopé.
- 14. I has a long sound, as, in fine, and a short one, as, in fin. Before r it is often sounded like u short, as, in fine. In some words it has the sound of e long, as, in machine. In generally sounds like ya, as, in filial; sometimes it has the sound of short i, as, in carriage. It sounds like long e, as, in grief; sometimes like short i, as, in siere. Is u has the sound of long u, as, in lieu. Io, when accented on the first vowel, forms two syllables, as, in riolent. The terminations, tion and sion, are sounded like shun, except when sor x precedes the t, as, in question, mixtion.—He final, in words accented on the last syllable but one, is short; as, in fertile, except in a few words.—He, in words accented on the last syllable but one, is generally short; as, in franchite;—except likevise and a few others,—but in words accented on the last syllable but one, is generally short; as, in franchite; but two, it is long; as, in crificise.—Ire is long; as, in crifice.—Ine in many words is long, in others it is short.
- 15. O has three sounds, as, in note, not, more. It sometimes has the short sound of u, as, in son. Oa has the long sound of o, as, in boat, except in broad, abroad, groat, where it takes the sound of broad a, abraud. Oe has the sound of single e, as, in Anlocat; sometimes it is sounded as long o, as, in doe, foe, sloe, three, hoe, billocs. Oi has the sound of a broad and e long united, as, in boy; as, boil, toil. Oo is generally pronounced as in moon; but in wool, good, fool, and a few others, it is short; in blood, flood, it sounds like short u; door, floor, are pronounced as if written dore, fore. Ou has six sounds: let, its general sound of ou, as, in bound, drought; 2nd, of short u, as, in enough; 2nd, of oo, as, in youth; 4th, of long o, as, in though; 5th, of short o, as, in cough; 6th, is that of ave, as, in ought. Ou is generally sounded like ou in thou, as, in troum; sometimes like long o, as, in snow. Oy is sounded like of, of which it is only another form.
- 16. U has three sounds, as, in mule, tide, full. The words busy, business, bury, burial, are deviations; they are sounded as bury, bimess, berry, berrial. Ua has sometimes the sound of ud, as, in assuage; and sometimes of middle a, as, in quard. Ue is frequently sounded like ue, as, in quarch; sometimes like u, as, in hue; but in a few words it is pronounced like e short, as, in quent; and in some

Para. 17.]

words it is sunk, as, in antique, catalogue. Ut is pronounced like ut, as, in languid; sometimes as long t, as, in guide; sometimes as short t, as, in guilt, sometimes like long u, as, in juice; and after r, as co, as, in fruit, true. Uo is pronounced like to, as, in quote. Up has the sound of long e, as, in obloquy (pronounced obloquee), except buy and its derivatives.

LESSON 4.—Exercise 4.—Page 3.

The Sounds of the Consonants.

17. B has a uniform found. In some words, and after m, it is silent, as, in destor, subtle, dumb.

18. C sounds hard like k before a, o, u, l, r, t, and at the end of a syllable; before c, i, and y, it generally sounds soft like s; as, in centre, city, cymbal; but before ca, ia, ic, io, as sh, as, in ocean, social.

Cis mute in car, carina, victuals, indict, muscle, &c.

Ch is generally counded like tch, as, in church. In words derived from the Greek ch counds k, as, in chorus; also in Scripture names, as, Enoch. In words derived immediately from the French, ch has the sound of sh, as, in chaise, charilde.

Ch is allent in schiem, yacht, pronounced wit.

Arch in compounds of our own language rounds like arich; as, in archbishop, archers, architend; but like art in words derived from the Greek; archwology, archiepiscopal, archangel, &c.

19. D has a uniform sound; but final ed after ch, k, f, p, s, ss, x, frequently sounds as t, as, in stuffed. Ed at the end of verbs is frequently sounded as in below d; but in adjectives it is sounded in full; as, in curs-ed, bless-ed, below-ed.

20. F has a uniform sound, except in of, which has the sound of or; but of, when forming only part of a word, is regular, as, whereof.

- 21. G is hard before a, o, u, l, r, and at the end of a word; as, in gat, go, goal, gum, glow, grunt, dog, except in gaol (jail).

 G is frequently soft like j before c, i, and y; as, in genius, ginger, Egypt: but hard when it is doubled; as, in trig-ger, crag-gy; also, before the comparative and superlative er and est; as, longer, longest; and in get, geese, gewgaw, anger, finger, target, giddy, give, gibberish, and many others.
- b. G is mute before n, as, in sign, grash, impugn. Ng final counds as in sing, ring. The at the beginning of a word sounds as g hard, as in ghost; after it is eilent, as in high; generally silent before i, as in bought; except in draught, and laugh, in which it sounds like f. In other places, gh generally sounds like f, as in cough, enough; gh in lough, lough, sounds like k; in hiccough like p; gh is ellent in slough, a miry place.
- 22. a. H denotes an aspiration, or impulse of the breath, on the vowel following. Hat the beginning of words is sounded, as in harm. But in the following words and their derivatives, it is silent:---

Heir, heiress, heritage, &c. Herb, herbal, herbaceous. Honest, honesty. Honour, Lonourable. Hespital, hospitality, &c.

Hostler, hostlery. Hour, hourly, hour-glass. Humour, humorous, humorsome. Humble, humbleness. h is silent in these Humility, humiliation. | acc. to Walker.

 Not to aspirate the h at the beginning of words, except in the preceding, is a fault; but it is a much greater fault to aspirate words beginning with a vowel; to my, for instance, ham for am; herred for erred.

- c. Many words beginning with h, at present aspirated, have an instead of a before them, both in the Bible and Book of Common Prayer, showing that those words were formerly either not aspirated, or that the aspirate was a matter of indifference; thus, Gen. ii. 18, "An help-meet;" Gen. v. 3, "An hundred;" Gen. xxxiii. 17, "An honse;" Psalm xi. 6, "An horrible tempest;" Psalm xxxiii. 3, "An host;" Psalm xxxiii. 7, "An heap;" Psalm xxxviii. 4, "An heavy burden." Also, in the Prayer Book Version, Psalm lxviii. v. 4, "An horse;" v. 6, "In an house;" v. 15, "An high hill."
- d. When his, him, her, coming after verbs and prepositions, are unemphatical, the h is rarely sounded; but when these words are important, the h should be sounded; as, "Hear Him."
- 23. J is pronounced like soft g, except in hallelujah, where it is pronounced like ν .
- 24. K is always hard, as, in kept; it is not sounded before n, as, in knife; and is never doubled except in Habakkuk.
- 25. L has a soft liquid sound, as, in lore; it is sometimes mute, as, in half, talk. Le, at the end of words, is pronounced like a weak el, the e being silent, as, in table. Tal, final, sounds as in mortal, capital.
- 26. M has always the same sound, as, in murmur; it is silent in compiroller, which is pronounced controller.
- 27. N has two sounds; the one pure, as, in man, the other a ringing sound like ng, as, in thank. N is mute after m, at the end of a syllable, as, in hymn.
- 23. P has one uniform sound, except in cuploard, in which word it has the sound of b. It is mute before s and l; as, in psalm, psaller, Ptolemy. Ph has generally the sound of f, as, in philosophy; but in nephew and Sephen, it has the sound of v; and in apophtheym, philisis, phthisical, both letters are entirely dropped.
- 29. Q is always followed by u, as, in queen. Qu sometimes sounds like k, as, conqueror.
- 30. R has a rough sound, as, in Rome; and a smooth one, as, in bard. Re, at the end of words, sounds like a weak er, in theatre.
- 31. S has a soft and flat sound like z, as, in besom; at the beginning of words, a share hissing sound, as, in sister. At the end of words, it is soft; as, was, his; except this, thus, us, yes, rebus, surplus, &c. S has also a sound like th, as, in sure, sugar; and another like th, as, in pleasure, leisure. It is silent in tele, island, demesne, viscount.
- 32. T generally sounds as in take. T before u, when the accent precedes sounds like teh, as, in nature, ritual. The has two sounds; the one flat and soft, as, in thus; the other hard and sharp, as, in thint. The is sometimes pronounced like simple t, as, in Thomas, thyme, asthma. To before a vowel has the sound of th; as, in partial.—The before a could is sounded long; as, the air; before a consonant, it is sounded as th'; as, th' man.
 - 33. V has the sound of flat f, as, in rain.
- 34. W, at the beginning of a word or syllable, has nearly the sound of oo, as, in water. In some words it is not sounded, us, in answer; it is ellent before r, as, in urap, urang. After o, at the end of a syllable, it is generally ellent, as, in grow, blow. W, before h, is pronounced as if it were after the h, as, why, hwy; when, hwen.
- 35. It has three sounds. It is sounded like z at the beginning of proper names of Greek origin, as, in Xenophon. Sometimes it sounds like ks, when it ends a syllable accented, as, exit, excellence; or when the accent is on the next syllable beginning with a consonant, as, extent; but generally it has a flat sound like gs, as, in example, exist.
- 26. I, when a vowel, sounds precisely like i in the same circumstances, as, rhyme, system, justify, party. When y is used as a consonant, it is sounded as in York, ees. Final y is generally short in nouns, and loog in rests; as, purity, density, prophery, nouns,—purity, density, prophery, reus.
 - 57. a. Z has the sound of flat s, as, in brazen.

- b. As a perfect Alphabet must always contain as many letters as there are elementary sounds in the language, the linglish Alphabet is therefore both defective and redandant. It is Wefective; for the five letters a, e, i, v, u, are employed to represent fourteen distinct sounds, and the sounds of h, ih, and ag, have no appropriate letters to represent them. It is also redundant; for c is represented in both its sounds by k or s; f has the soft sound of g, g of k, and x is compounded of g, or tk.
- 58. a. The pronunciation of the letters properly forms a branch of Orthopp, included in Procedy. (See 500.)
- b. In pronunciation, both the unaccented and accented vowels should have their distinct and appropriate sounds. Thus, a good speaker would pronounce the word amily, as if written dmiss, and not, as it is frequently but improperly pronounced, dmiss. Indeed, the correct pronunciation of the unaccented vowels is one of the characteristics of a good education.
- c. In the pronunciation of Compounds, the long sounds in the simple words are generally shortened: thus, vine, vineyard; clean, cleanly: chaste, chastity: know, knowledge: holy, holiday: please, pleasant: break, breakfast: advertise', advertisement. There are, however, some exceptions, which may be learned by referring to a good pronouncing dictionary.

OF SYLLABLES AND WORDS.

LESSON 5.—Exercise 5. a. & b.—Page 4.

- 39. a. A Syllable is either a word or a portion of a word which can be pronounced at once; as, I, mine, just.
- b. Every syllable contains at least one vowel; but, in many words, the vowel in the last syllable is not sounded, as, in tak-en, e-vil, sea-son.
- 40. a. · Words are articulate sounds, used by the tacit consent of a people as signs to convey our ideas.
- b. All that speak the same language use the same word to express the same idea, while those who speak different languages use different words to express the same idea; thus, the thing which we call hat, a Frenchman calls chapeau.
- 41. a. A. word of one syllable is termed a monosyllable; a word of two syllables, a dissyllable; of three, a trisyllable; and of four or more, a polysyllable.
- b. All words were, originally, what are now termed monosyllables; but, from an inattentive rapidity of pronunciation, two, three, or more words, expressing several ideas, were often uttered so closely together, as at length, through the force of habit, to be considered only one word. Hence, those words which we now call dissyllables, trisyllables, and polysyllables, are no more than two, three, or more entire words, or parts of words, which had a separate existence either in the same or in some kindred language, and which are thus condensed into one.
 - 42. All words are either primitive, derivative, or compound.
- a. As primitive, radical, or root word is not derived from another word in the language; as, art, kind, wise.
- b. A derivative word is one that is formed from a primitive, either by prefixing or annexing a syllable or syllables; as, unkind, kind-ness; or by changing some vowel or consonant; as, long, length; bend, bent.
 - c. A compound word is formed by the union of two or more primitive words, that are joined either without undergoing any alteration in themselves, or only a very slight one; as, book-case, from book, case.
 - d. Permanent compounds and derivatives are consolidated; as, bookseller; others are formed by the hyphen; as, thip-builder.

Spelling.

- 43. a. Spelling is the method by which we express a word by its proper letters, and rightly divide it into syllables.
- b. The spelling of the English language is principally, though not entirely, determined by the pronunciation. The only rules which can be given are, 1st, Those which refer to the division of words into syllables; 2ndly, Those which relate to final letters, and the mode of annaxing additional syllables to them.

1. Rules for the Division of Words into Syllables.

- 44. General Rule.—Divide the words according to the division made by a correct pronunciation. When the pronunciation is not known, observe the following Special Rules:—
- Rule 1.—Two voices coming together, not forming a diphthong, must be divided into separate syllables; as, li-on, cru-cl. A diphthong, preceding a vowel, must be separated from it; as, roy-al, pow-cr.
- Rule 2.—a. A single consonant, between two vowels, is generally joined to the latter; as, de-light, o-bey. But the letter x and the pronunciation of several words require the consonant to be joined to the former; as, ex-ist, Ad-am, ner-er.
 - b. Derivatives also are divided into their simples; as, up-on, dis-use.
- Rulc 3.—Two consonants, between two vowels, must be separated; as, un-der, in-sect: except when the latter consonant is not proper to begin the syllable alono; as, fa-blc, de-clinc.

. Two consonants, such as wh, th, ch, ct, sh, ph, forming only one sound, are never divided; as, fa-ther. Ck go with the former syllable, as pack-ct.

Rule 4.—Three or more consonants, between two vowels, must not be separated, if the preceding vowel is long: as, dêthrone, dê-stroy. But when the preceding vowel is short, they must be separated agreeably to that division which is observed in the pronunciation; as, dis-tract, āb-stain, părch-ment.

Rule 5.—a. Compounded and derivative words must be divided into the simple words of which they are composed, as, ice-house, mis-lcad. But y (except in dough-y, enow-y, string-y) is not often placed alone; as, dus-ty, wor-thy, gen-tly, has-ty, gree-dy.

b. Grammatical terminations are generally separated; as, writ-est, writ-ing; knav-ish, tall-er, tall-est.

- c. Derivatives, doubling the final consonant of the simple, have the consonants separated; as, fat, fat-ter.—d. When the additional syllable is preceded by c or g soft, the cor g is added to the additional syllable; as, of-fen-ce, wa-per. Also, when the preceding single rowel is long, the consonant, if single, is joined to the termination; as, bd-ker, po-ker, (d-ken.
 - Rule 6.—The terminations cial, cian, tial, cious, scious, sion, tion, tious, should not be divided; as, so-cial, mu-si-cian, vicious, con-scious; except when ti is preceded by s; as, cc-lesti-al.
 - 45. Caution.—In writing, never terminate a line with part of a word which does not form a syllable; thus, it is improper to write u in one line and pon in the next, instead of up-on; or del-ight for de-light; co-nvince for con-vince; bu-ild for build.

Either insert the whole word, or such a division as can be made according to the preceding rules. The syllable at the end of the line requires a hyphen (-) to connect it with the remainder of the word given at the beginning of the next line, as in the word de-light. (See 484. a.)

2. Rules for final and additional Syllables.

LESSONS 6 to 9.—Exercises 6 to 9.b.—Pages 5 to 7.

- **L. 6.**—46. Rule 1.—a. Monosyllables ending with f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, have those consonants doubled; as, muff, ball, loss; except as, gas, has, his, if, of, is, this, thus, us, was, yes.
- b.-But monosyllables not ending with f, l, or s, preceded by a single vowel, preserve their final consonant single; as, man, fur, fox; except add, bunn, butt, bu=, ebb, egg, err, fu=, inn, odd, purr.
 - c. A final consonant, preceded by a diphthong, or by another consonant, is not doubled; as, beef, coal, searf. But u following q, or q, doubles the consonant; as, guess, quill.
 - d. Words of more than one syllable have the final componant generally single, if preceded by a single vowel; as, alabaster; except words ending in f or s, which are doubled; as, rebuff, harness.
 - e. C hard is used as a final letter only in words of more than one syllable, when f or ia precedes it, as physic, maniac;—in monosyllables, it is always followed by k, as, duck.trick; except lac, zinc, disc, tale;—in derivatives also, c is followed by k, when the pronunciation requires it; as, traffic, trafficker; frolic, frolicking.
 - 47. Rule 2.—a. Words ending in y, preceded by a rowel, retain the y upon taking any augment; as, boy, boy-s, boy-ish; joy, joy-ful; annoy, annoy-ance, annoy-ing, annoy-er.

Except slain, saith, staid, with laid, paid, said, and their compounds, unlaid, unpaid, unsaid.

- b. But words ending in y, preceded by a consonant, change the y into i, upon assuming an augment; and also in forming the plurals of nouns, the persons of verbs, verbal nouns, past participles, comparatives, and superlatives; as, happ-y, happi-ly, happi-ness; dut-y, dut-ies; try, tri-est; carr-y, carr-ier; carr-ied; hol-y, hol-ier, hol-iest.
- c. But ing, ish, ism, retain the y that i may not be doubled; as, carry, carry-ing; ba-by, ba-by-ish; dry, dry-ish; Tory, Tory-ism.
- d. Derivatives of adjectives of one syllable ending in y preceded by a consonant, frequently retain the y; as, thy, thy-nes; sly, sly-est. But there is no good reason for this deviation.—Stip generally retains the y; as, secretary-thip.—Ist generally changes the y; as, etymology, etymologist.—In Compounds considered as such, the y is retained; as, handy-work; dry-salter.
- e. The termination ty is changed into it before the num our; as, lounty, bount-term but calculity and iniquity make calculations and iniquitous.

- z. 7.—18. Rule 3.—a. Words ending in silent e retain the e on receiving an additional syllable beginning with a consonant, as, pale, pale-ness; abate, abate-ment. Except in du-ly, tru-ly, aw-ful, judg-ment, abridg-ment, acknowledg-ment, lodg-ment, argu-ment, and wholly, in which the final e is rejected.
- b. Words ending in silent e reject the e when the additional syllable begins with a rowel (as, ing, ed, ish, able, y, &e.); as, place, placing, placed; cure, cur-able; slave, slavish; rose, ros-y; rogue, rogu-ish.
- c. But when c is preceded by c or g soft (and also, though contrary to analogy, in the words sale and tithe), it is retained before able and ous, but not before ible; as, peace, peace-able; charge, charge-able; courage, courage-ous (sale, sale-able; tithe, tithe-able). But reduce, reduc-ible; and also, practic-able, gracious, spacious, from practice, grace, space.
- d. E is changed into i before ty; as, humane, human-tly; except surety, safety, duty. Words ending in ie change ie into y before int; as, die, dy-ing; lie, ly-ing.
- e. The following words retain e before ing to prevent ambiguity: dye, to stain, dge-ing; hoe, hoe-ing; shoe, shoe-ing; singe, singe-ing; suringe, suringe-ing; spunge, spunge-ing; tinge, tinge-ing; toe, toe-ing.
- f. Words ending in exomit one e when the additional syllable begins with e; as, see, seeth; but retain it before ing and able; as, seeing, freeing, agree-able.
- T. 8.—49. Rule 4.—a. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable ending with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, upon assuming a syllable beginning with a rowel (as ing, ish, ed, er, est, ence, y, &c.), double the last consonant; as, blot, blot-ting; mud, mud-dy; befit', befit'-ting; defer', defering; repel', repel'-ling.
- b. But words ending in one consonant,—either when preceded by two vowels, or when not accented on the last syllable, preserve the last consonant single, on assuming ing, ish, ed, &c.; as, Bloat, bloat-ing; cool, cool-er; need, need-y; repeal', repeal'-ing; ben'efit, ben'efit-ing; differ, differ-ing. Except wool, wool-len, wool-ly.
- c. When the augment is a consonant, no doubling takes place; as, blot, blots.—Words ending with two consonants, do not take an additional consonant before ing, ish, ed, &c.; as, instruct, instructed.
- d. Words ending in I or p, (and one in s,) though not accented on the last syllable, have frequently, but contrary to analogy, the I and p doubled; as, travel-ler, worship-per.—In the following words the doubling is too firmly established to be readily discontinued: apparelled, blassed, cancelled, cavilled, ethselled, counselled, dialling, duelling, equalled, gravelled, grovelling, jeweller, kidnapped, labelling, leveller, libelling, medalling, modelling, parcelling, pencilling, travelling, worshipping.
 - c. The influence of the Accent will be seen from the following:-

Confer', confer -ring, con'fe-rence; refer', refer'-ring, refer-ence; belif', belifting, belif-led; ben'eil, ben'eil-ing, benefit-el.

f. The following examples illustrate the whole rule :-

1. Consonant doubled.

2. Consonant single

Blot-ling, defer-ring, repeal-ling, Blot-led. defer-red. repeal-led. Blot-led. diff-fer-ed. repeal-led.	,			2, 0	ousonano suoje	C.
Mud-dy. flat-lish. thin-ner. Ruln-y. fool-ish. join-er.	Blot-test, Blot-ting,	defer-rest, defer-ring,	repel-lest, repel-ling, repel-led.	Bloat-est, Bloat-ing, Bloat-ed.	diff-fer-est, diff-fer-ing, diff-fer-ed.	repeal-ent repeal-ing repeal-ed.

- 3. With a consonantal angment = Blot-s; seal-s; suffer-s.
- . 1.9. a.—50. Rule 5.—a. Words ending with two consonants, except *ll*, retain both consonants upon assuming an augment, beginning either with a vowel or a consonant; as, stiff-ly from stiff, odd-ity from odd, harmless-ness from harmless.
- * b. But words ending in *ll*, generally, if not always, drop one *l* before ness, less, ly, and ful; as, full, ful-ness; skill, skil-less, skill-ful. But ill-ness, still-ness, shrill-ness, small-ness, tall-ness, and words in all, are exceptions.
- 4 51. Rule 6.—a. Compound words are generally spelled in the same manner as the simple words of which they are composed; as, glass-house, there-by, up-hill.—b. But words ending in Il in their simples, generally drop one I when joined to other words; as, al-mighty, al-ready, al-ways, hand-ful.—c. But, when all, hill, mill, and well, form the termination of a compound word, the Il is generally preserved; as, in re-call, be-fall, up-hill, wind-mill, fare-well. So also in words in which the union is only partial; as, all-sufficient.
- L. 9. b.—52. a. Much has been dono of late (particularly by the late Dr. Webster, of New Haven, U. S. of America) to reduce the orthography of the English language to a greater degree of uniformity; but the deviations from analogy, though greatly diminished, are still numerous. A perfect uniformity of spelling would render the acquisition of the language not only easier to foreigners, but also to our own countrymen.—Much of the irregularity of our orthography is to be attributed to the want of knowledge in our early printers. Thus, in early books, we find eminent and imminent, ingenuous and ingenious promiscuously used.
- b. The words of the English language having been derived from such a variety of sources, a question might be raised whether all words terminating in syllables of the same or nearly the same sound should be spelled with the same letters. Uniformity would certainly plead for such a mode, and would prevail, were not respectable usage as well as derivation frequently at variance with such a plan. In cases of this kind the only safe principle which can be adopted is to reduce, under one uniform mode of termination, all words which can be so classified without violating established usage, or the just principles of derivation. Thus,
- 1. Words formerly ending in ie in the singular, as glorie, bountie, retain the ie only in the plural, and change it into y in the singular; as, bounty, bounties.
- 2. Many words derived from the French, and which formerly ended in re, have now substituted er for re; as, chamber, disaster; but the following retain re, as, metre, mitre, nitre, petere, sceptre, theatre, sepulchre, centre. The derivatives of these are spelled in the same manner; as, mitred, nitrous, sceptred.
- 3. Shortly after the revival of letters in Europe, many words in Latin terminating in or, and French words terminating in eur, were introduced into English by changing or and eur into our; thus, errour, lonour. This practice was adopted by Johnson in his Dictionary. Since his day, the rejection of u is very properly becoming the custom of good writers; thus, error, author, honor. The following words, however, are written with u, as, neighbour, succour, vigour,

entions. Tenous means continuity of state, Tenor, a clef in music. In all the adjectives of the preceding words, u has for some time been omitted; as, erroneous, honor-able, author-itative, vigor-ous, labor-ions.

- 4. Much irregularity prevails with regard to words ending in or and er; thus, some would write instructor, others instructor. The termination or in these words is becoming more general; as, visitor, cultivator, objector. Sometimes or implies a difference of meaning; thus, sailor, a mariner, sailor is applied to a vessel.
- 5. Words ending in one or once. Uniformity would recommend once, but custom is divided, employing se in expense—but se in defence, offence, presence, and recompense. But in all the derivatives s is employed—defensive, expensive, offence, presention, recompensing.
- 6. Terminations from the Latin ans generally retain ant; as, abundant, reluctant; but other words formerly ending in ant, ance, are now written with ence; as, dependent, dependent, except defendant, attendant. Those which formerly began with en are now frequently written with in; as, inquire. But en is retained in many, as, enlice, entire. At present, there are two adjectives, dependent, in the power of another, and dependent, hanging from Dependent, the noun, means one who lives in subjection to another, a retainer.
- 7. When a verb ends in se or sy, its corresponding noun must end in se or sy; thus, odrise, adelice; to practice, a gradice; to devise, a device; to prophety, a prophety. Dr. Webster gives practice both for the noun and verb, but contrary to general usage.
- 8. Many verbs end in ite or ite. The spelling of the primitive, when known, should be adopted; but when not, uniformity would recommend the use of ite, though custom (especially in words derived from the Greek) inclines to ite; as, civilite. Another reason for preferring ite is, that many of the nouns of these verbs end in itm; as, galeanism, anglicism.
- 9. With respect to the termination clien or xion in many nowns, the former is preferable; as, connection, inflection, reflection.
- 10. In the words Lefall, recall, install, enthroll, it has been recommended that the double I should be retained, as it forms a guide to the correct pronunciation of these words.
- 11. New terms introduced must conform as much as possible to orthographical analogy; thus, systemize from system is preferable to systematize; us, in modernize, civilize, &c.
- 12. Several words are now spelled differently from what they were some time ago; thus, cloose, jail, are used in preference to chuse, gaol, which are obsolcte in all good works.
- 13. Dr. Johnson's Dictionary has, till recently, been considered the standard for the signification of words, and Walker's for the pronunciation. Johnson's Dictionary, however, is deficient in philological research, in orthographical consistency, and, occasionally, in accuracy of definition, so that most modern writers have with great propriety deviated from it in these respects. Still, the work is very valuable from the strong masculine sense of its author, and the appositeness of his illustrations. Some time ago, Dr. Webster, of New Haven, U.S. of America, published an elaborate Dictionary of the English Language, in which he has avoided the irregularities of Johnson's orthography, and much improved his definitions; but, of the correctness of his etymologies several scholars have expressed great doubt. The last edition of his Dictionary, in one thick volume, improved by Goodrich and Porter, can be strongly recommended as a most useful work. Richardson's Dictionary has many good features, but it is susceptible of much improvement.

Of smaller works, the following can be recommended,—Mounder's Treasury of Knowledge; Walker's Dictionary improved by Smart; and another edition of Walker by Darts.

Directions for acquiring a Knowledge of Orthography.

LESSON 10.—Exercise 10.—Page 7.

- 53. Direction 1.—Let the Rules and Observations given from 43 to 52 be carefully impressed on the memory, and applied not only to the correction of the respective Exercises, but whenever opportunity occurs, till the whole is familiarized to the mind.
- 54. Direction 2.—Dictation should be statedly and frequently practised.

Too much importance cannot be attached to the advantages resulting from this mode. Many persons are able to spell well orally, but fall to do so in writing. Only practice will correct this fault.

55. Direction 3.—The Transcription or Dictation of lists of difficult words, and words liable to be misapplied, should form another frequent exercise. Of this kind are the following:—

1. Words similar in sound, but different in spelling and signi-

fication; as,

· 2. Words differently spelled, but pronounced nearly alike; as,

Accidence, s. the rudiments of Grammar; Accidente, s. unforeseen events.

Assistance, s. help; Assistante, s. helpers.

Council, s. an assembly; Council, s. alvice.

Illusion, s. escape from examination; Illusion, s. false show, mockery.

Emerge, v. int. to rise out of; Immerge, v. tr. to dip in water.

Idel, a. lazy; Idel, s. an object of worship.

Sandary, a. designed to secure health.

3. Words of similar sound, but differing in respect of aspiration and meaning; as,

. 4. Words spelled alike, but differently pronounced and applied, according to the accent; as,

5. Words accented on the same syllable, but whose Orthography or Pronunciation, or both, are changed by a change of the Part of Speech; as,

6. Words which change one or more letters, to distinguish the different parts of speech; ne,

Dath (th sharp), a a convenience for Bathe (th fiat), v. to immerse one's self. Briath, a air respired by animals; Bristhe, v. to draw breath.Griere, v. to mourn. Grief, a. sorrow;..... Gran, s. the herbage of fields; Grane, v. to feed on grass, touch lightly.

7. Words liable to be mis-spelled, either from the silence, or unusual sound, of one or more letters; as,

Achiere. Autumn, Cupboard, Acquiesce, Business, Donit.

Able. Catalogue, Tatigue.

Answer, Cinque, Heiler.

Assignee, Duttor, Myrrh.

8. Words of unsettled Orthography; as,

Andent or Antient, Cipher or Cypher, Dispatch or Despatch, Expense or Expense, Inquire or Enquire.

Brazier or Brasier. Connection or Connection. Inclose or Exclose, Shily or Slyly, Gaiety or Gaiety.

9. Difficult or unusual words; as,

Ache, acre, ague, arraign, assuage, alma, Brocade, bazzar, banquet, basalt, burlesque, bohea. Callph, chaos, crayon, chart, challee, chagrin, critique, &c.

The Latin and Greek Prefixes; see 286, 287.

11. Words which vary in their termination according to their meaning or derivation; as,

Sallor, a man devoted to a maritime | Saller, generally means a slip that ealis life:

well. Assignee, the person appointed to act for arother.

Assigner, one who assigns or appoints; Dependent, s. one who lives in subjection to another; Dependent, a. hanging from ;

Dependant, a. in the power of another.

Depositary, a person with whom any | Depository, the place in which anything thing is lodged; Tenour, the general course of any- | Tenor, the higher kind of voice belongthing:

is lodged.

ing to a man.

PART II.—ETYMOLOGY.

LESSON 11,-Exercise 11.-Page 10.

'56. ETYMOLOGY explains the Classification, Inflection, and Derivation of words.

Etymology is derived from ετυμος (etumos), true, and λόγος (logos), word.

- , 57. a. Classification is the arrangement of words into different sorts or classes, according to their respective properties. These classes are called *Parts* or *Divisions* of Speech,
- b. Inflection is the change or alteration which words undergo, particularly in the termination, to express their various relations.
- c. Derivation is that part which explains the origin and primary signification of words.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

- '58. There are, in English, nine Classes of words, or Parts of Speech; namely, 1, the Article; 2, the Substantive or Noun; 3, the Adjective; 4, the Pronoun; 5, the Verb; 6, the Adverb; 7, the Preposition; 8, the Conjunction; and 9, the Interjection.
- 1. An Article is a word put before a noun to show whether the object represented by the noun is taken in an indefinite or in a particular sense; as, a man, the man.
- 2. A Substantive or Noun is the name of any person, place, or thing which either exists, or is supposed to exist; as, John, London, horse, book, hope.
- 3. An Adjective is a word used with a noun to denote some quality, number, quantity, or other attribute belonging to the person or thing represented by the noun; as, "A good man;" "twenty horses;" "many books;" "green grass;" "different ways."
- 4. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid repeating it in the same sentence; as, "When Caesar had conquered Gaul, he turned his arms against his country." (Here he and his are Pronouns.)

- 5. a. A Verb is a word employed to affirm or assert that a person or thing is—1, either existing: as, "I am;" or 2, doing something; as, "I teach;" or 3, is the object of some action; as, "I am taught."
- b. A cerd is also used to command, exhort, request, or ask a question; as, "Be silent;" "Study diligently;" "Spare me;" "Lend mo the book;" "Hare you critice the letter?"
- 6. An Adverb is a word used with verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs to express some circumstance of time, place, manner, degree, affirmation, &c.; as, "He wrote lately;" "He lives here;" "He reads well;" "A truly diligent scholar;" "He speaks very fluently."
- 7. A Preposition is a word placed before nouns or pronouns to show the relation in which persons or things stand with regard to other persons or things in the sentence; as, "He went from London to Leeds."
- 8. A Conjunction is a word used to join words in construction, or to connect parts of sentences, so as to form a single whole; as, "One and one make two;" "He and I must go."
- 9. An Interjection expresses some sudden wish or emotion of the mind; as, O! ah! alas!
- 69. a. The classification of works into distinct parts of speech has formed the subject of much improfitable discussion. Some writers contend for fuo classes only, some for four, others for eight or ten. Were the classes reduced to two or four, the subordinate divisions would be proportionably increased, and the specific differences would neither be so easily acquired nor so readily applied as by the present arrangement. The disadvantages attendant on such a mode would be severely felt when the pupil attempted the acquisition of a foreign language. Why then introduce an innovation which is calculated not to assist but to perplex? The intention of classification is to assist the memory in the acquisition and retention of facts; objects are, therefore, ranged in the order determined by their specific properties. Accordingly, the parts of speech in the English language may be conveniently arranged in the following Order:—
- 1. Articles; to define the extent of meaning implied by nouns.
- 2. Nouns; to denote the names of persons and things.
- 3. Adjectives; to denote various qualities existing in persons or things.
- 4. Pronouns; employed as substitutes for nouns.
- 5. Verbs; to affirm something respecting a person or thing.
- Adverbs; to denote some circumstance of time, place, &c. of a verb or adjective.
- 7. Prepositions; to denote certain relations between persons or things.
- 8. Conjunctions; to connect words in construction.
- 9. Interjections; to express some sudden wish or emotion.

b. In the following passage all the parts of speech are exemplified; the numeral over each word denotes the part of speech in the order in which it is explained; thus, I stands for the article, 2, for the substantive, 3, for the adjective, &c. 1 2 7 2 5 1 2 3 7 2 8 5 7 4 7

The power of speech is a faculty peculiar to man; and was bestowed on him by 4 8 2 7 1 3 8 3 2 2 8 9 his beneficent Creator, for the greatest and most excellent nees; but alas!

how often do we pervert it to the worst of purposes.

- c. The best and most rational mode of making the pupil understand the parts of speech, is to require him to distinguish them by the definitions and illustrations subjoined to each. Numerous additional examples may be supplied by the teacher.
- 60. a. Grammatical Parsing, or resolving a sentence into the various elements of which it is composed, forms a very useful auxiliary in Grammatical Instruction. For Models and Exercises on this subject, the pupil must consult the volume of Exercises.
 - b. Etymological Parsing Table.
- 1. An Article.... Why? Definite or Indefinite? Why?
- A Substantire... Why? Proper, common, or abstract?—gender?—number?
 —person?—case? Why? Decline it. Quote the rale for
 the formation of the plural.
- 3. An Adjective.... Why? Of what kind? Why? Mention the degree of comparison; compare it.
- 4. A Pronoun..... Why? What kind?—gender?—number?—person?—case? Why? Decline it. If a Relative,—which is the antecedent?
- 5. A Verb. Why? Transitive, Intransitive, or Passive?—regular or irregular? Mood?—tense?—number?—person? Why? Conjugate the verb or mention its principal parts.
- 6. An Adrerb. . . . Why?
- 7. A Preposition ... Why?
- 8. A Conjunction ... Why?
- 9. An Interjection. Why?

II. INFLECTION.

LESSON 12.-Exercise 12.-Page 10.

61. Inflection is the change or alteration which words undergo, particularly in the termination, to express their various relations.

1. OF THE ARTICLES.

- 62. a. An Article is a word put before a noun, to show whether the object represented by the noun is taken in an indefinite or in a particular sense; as, A man," "The man."
- b. The Articles are, in strictness, Adjectives; a. an, being abbreviations of or, one, one, used unemphatically; and the, of that. They may, however, advantageously retain the separate position which grammatians have long assigned to them. For, by this means, their several peculiarities are rendered more intelligible to learners, and a comparison between them and those of other languages is greatly facilitated.
 - 63. a. The articles are a or an, and the.
- b. A or an is called the indefinite article, because it does not point out any particular person or thing; as, "a book," that is, any book.
- 64. a. \mathcal{A} is used before nouns only in the singular number, beginning with a consonant, or the aspirate h: as, "a tree;" "a hero;" before u when sounded long, and before words beginning in sound with w and y; as, "a unit," "such a one," "a ewe," "a European."
- b. A is, however, used before plural nouns when they are preceded by the words few and great many, as, "A few men," "A great many apples;" also before collective words, as, "A dozen," "A hundred men."
- c. In poetry a is sometimes placed between the adjective many and a singular noun; as, "Fall many a gem." This construction, though allowable in poetry, and common in colloquial language, is a violation of grammatical propriety.
- 65. a. An is used instead of a before all vowels (except those just mentioned), and also before silent h; as, "an eagle," "an hour." In order to prevent a disagreeable hiātus, it is also used before words beginning with h sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, "an historical account."
- b. The words beginning with h ellent, according to Walker, are heir, herb, honest, honour, hospital, hostler, hour, humour, humble, and their derivatives. Both in the Bible and the Prayer Book, an is very frequently used before words which are now apprinted. (See 22.)

- c. A and an are (as stated in 62. b) merely abbreviations of the old words are and ane, signifying one used unemphatically. The peculiar difference in the application of the article a or an, and the numeral one, may be thus shown:—When I speak of one object in contradistinction to two or more, I make use of the term one; as, "Can one man carry this weight? No; but two can." But when I alludo not so much to the number as to the species, I say, "Can a man carry this weight? No; but a horse may."
- 66. a. The is called the definite article, because it indicates that some particular person or thing is meant; ac, "the book," meaning a particular book. The is used before nouns both in the singular and the plural number.
- b. The before a vowel is sounded as the; before a consonant as th'; as, "the eye;" "th' man."
- c. A noun without an article before it, denotes either all of that kind; as, "Man is mortal," that is, all mankind; or au indefinite number; as, "There are men destitute of shame;" that is, "there are some men."

2. OF SUBSTANTIVES.

LESSON 13.—Exercise 13. a. & b.—Page 11.

- G7. a. A Substantive or Norm is the name of any person, place, or thing which either exists, or is supposed to exist; as, John, London, horse, book, hope.
- b. Every thing that we can see, feel, hear, or conceive to exist, whether material or immaterial, is a noun; thus, boy, John, horse, school, book, are material substances, because we can see and touch them. Honour, hope, goodness, are also nouns; for though we can neither see, nor hear, nor touch them, yet wo can conceive such qualities or principles to exist; as, "The honour in which he was held;" "Hope cheered him when unfortunate;" "His goodness was conspicuous."
- c. A Substantive may, in general, be distinguished by its taking an article before it, or by its making sense of itself; as, an animal, a man; honour, hope, goodness. The term Substantive is derived from substare, to stand, to distinguish it from an adjective, which cannot, like the noun, stand alone. Noun comes from nomen, a name.
- 68. Substantives are of three kinds, Proper, Common, and Abstract.
- a. Proper Nouns are the names given only to individuals; as, the particular names of persons, places, seas, rivers, mountains, &c., as, George, Britain, London, the Bultic, the Thames.
- b. When Proper Nouns denote more individuals than one, they become a kind of common noun; as, "the Johnsons;" "the Howards;" and also, when they denote a species or character common to several; as, a Milton; a Shakspeare; a Chatham,

- 69. a. A Common Noun is the name which is given to every thing of the same kind or class; as, man, lion, city, tree.
- b. The principle of classification explained.—Observing many individuals to agree in certain properties, we refer them all to one class, to which we give a name, comprehending, in its signification, all the properties by which the class is distinguished; thus, every thing which can, of itself, more from place to place is called an animal; and this term animal is applicable to every individual in that class. Again, every animal which has four legs is called a gradruped, and the term quadruped is common to all the individuals powering three properties. So also, Eog is a name common to thousands of human beings, but the name William or Thomas may be appropriated only to few individuals of the class. The name boy is therefore a common noun, while William and Thomas are proper norms.
- e. Common nouns, also called Appellatives or General Terms, may be divided into the following varieties:-
- 1. Class nows, which indicate any single individual of which the class consists; no, log, here, house, port, orator. These terms can be applied to any one of the respective classes to which the individual belongs.
- Collective norms denote a number of individuals united together as a whole;
 parliament, army, flock, nation, multitude, &c.
 - 3. Names of materials which denotes substances; as, gold, edter, sugar, silk.
- 4. Names of numbers, veights, measures, quantity, distance, or time; as, a million, a gound, a grant, a mile, a rear.
- 70. a. Abstract Nouns are the names of Qualities considered apart from the objects in which they are found; as, wisdom, beauty, hardness, roundness.
 - b. Though the qualities wiedom, beauty, &c., cannot exist independently of, or spart from, the persons or things to which they belong; as, a rise man; beautiful rose; hard from; a round marble; yet we can form a distinct notion of them without thinking of the particular person or thing in which they exist, and can assign names to them. These qualities themselves, also, may be characterized by other qualities; thus, we can say profound wisdom, great beauty, extreme hardness, perfect roundness.
 - c. Abstract norms comprise several kinds, which may be arranged thus:-
 - 1. Names of qualities relating either to material objects or to the mind, and including the rirtues, rices, passions, and habits of man; thus, goodness, wickerness, industry, truth, acuteness, dulness, solidity, fuidity, uniteness, blackness, imagination.
 - Names of actions, including the nouns usually termed rertal or participial with the infinitive mood; as, reading, working, walking, studying, to study.
 - 3. Names of states or conditions either of mind or body, or of things in general; as, health, sickness, whelih, poverty, heat, cold.
 - 71. Nouns admit of variations to express gender number, and case.

Gender.

72. a. Living beings are divided into two classes or sexes, male and female. Things without life are of neither sex, and are thus called neuter.—In Grammar, Gender is the distinction made in nouns, to show whether the persons or things of which we speak are male, female, or neither. The grammatical Genders are the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

- b. The Masculine gender denotes male animals; as, man, horse.
- c The Feminine gender denotes female animals; as, woman, hen.
- d. The Neuter or neither gender, denotes objects without life, as, house, garden, frugality, hope.
- 73. a. Names which are applicable either to males or females, are said to be of the common gender; as, a parent, a friend, a sheep.
- In these instances, however, the sex is either not known or not regarded. When the sex is known, we should consider parent, friend, &c., masculine when applied to a man, and feminine when applied to a woman.
- b. In the distribution of gender, the English language follows the order of nature. In French, on the contrary, all nonns are either masculine or feminic; and in Greek and Latin, the gender of inanimate objects is determined by the termination.
- c. When speaking of animals, the sex of which is not regarded by us, we frequently assign to them gender suited to their particular characteristic properties. The strong and bold ones being considered of the masculine, and the weak and timid of the feminine gender; thus, we say of the horse, that he is a useful animal; of the hare, that he is timorous.
- d. Insects, small quadrupeds, birds, and fishes, are frequently spoken of as neuter.
- 74. a. Inanimate objects, when spoken of, or spoken to, as if they were persons, are considered either as masculine or feminine; thus, we say of Time, "he flies on rapid wings;" and of the Earth, "she is fruitful."
- b. This mode of giving life and sex to inanimate things, forms a striking beauty in our language, and renders it, in this respect, superior to the languages of Greece and Rome, neither of which admitted this animated phraseology. But no fixed rule can be given to determine, in all cases, which objects may be considered mascaline, and which feminine. In general, however, nouns that convey an idea of strength, firmness, or energy, are masculine; as, the Sun, Time, Death, Sleep, Lore, Autumn, Winter, &c. Thoso which convey an idea of weakness or timidity, or which are more of a passive than of an active nature, are feminine; ruch as, the Moon, Earth, Church, Religion, Nature, Summer, Spring, the names of Ships, Virtues, Vices, Cities, and Countries, and also of abstract nouns, as Liberty Honour, &c.
- 75. The Feminine gender of nouns is distinguished from the masculine in three ways—

a. FIRST, BY DIFFERENT WORDS; AS,

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
Bachelor	maid or spinster	Cock	hen
Beau (pr. Bō)	belle	Colt	filly
	sow	Dog	bitch
Boy	girl	Drake	duck
Brother	girl sister	Earl	countess
Buck	doe	Father	mother
Ball	6044	Friar or monk	nun
Bullock, ox, or	h.re.	Gander	g0020
Etcer .	nener		J

·			
Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Fentinine.
Gentleman	[lady (rarely, gentlewoman)	Papā	mammä*
Gentieman	gentlewoman)	Ram	0770
Hart	100	Rako	jilt
Horse	mare	Sir	mădam
Husband	wife	Sire (when ap-	
King	queen		mädam
Landlord	landlady	King)	_
Lord	lndy	Sire (a horse)	dam
Male	female	Sloven	slut
Man	woman	Son	daughter
Master	mistress •	Stag	hind
Master	miss	Swain	nymph
Milter (a maio) spawner	Unclo	aunt
fish)	S of made	Wizard	witch
Nephew	nicco		

b. SECOND, BY A DIFFERENCE OF TERMINATION; AS,

	,		•
Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
Abbot	abbess/	Giant	giantess
Actor	actress	Governor	governesse
Administrator	administrāt <i>rix</i>	Heir	heiress
Adülterer	adŭlteress	Heritor	heritrix
Ambassador	ambassadress	Hēro	hěr-o-ino
Arbiter	arbitress	Hunter	huntress
Author	authoress*	Hőst	hõstess
Baron	baroness	Instructor	instructress
Bridegroom	bride	Jew	jewess
Benefactor	benefactress	Lad	lass
Cāterer	cāteress	Landgravo	landgravino
Chanter	chautress	Liou	lioness
Conductor	conductress	Marquis	marchioness
Count	countess	Mayor	mayoress
Czar	∫ czarina	Monitor	mouitress
	(pr. za-rē-na)		negress
Dauphin	dauphiness	Patron	patroness
Deacon	deaconess	Peacock	peahen
Director	directrix	Pecr	peoress
Dou	donna	Poet	poetesse
Duke	duchess	Prior	prioress
Elector	electress	Prince	princess
Emperor	empress	\mathbf{P} rophet	prophetess
Enchanter	enchantrix	Protector	protectress
Executor	exěcutrix	Priest	priestess
Fornicator	fornicātrix	Shepherd	shepherdess
Founder	foundress	Sheldrake	shelduck

^{*} The mark — over a syllable shows that it is long, as 19 in Igrant; the mark — denotes that the syllable is short, as, so in executor.

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
Songster (a bird)	songstress	Traitor	traitress
Sorcerer	Borceress	Tutor	tutoress
Sultan	∫sul'tăness or	Tyrant	tyranness
) sultāna	Viscount	viscountess
Testator	testātrix	Võtary	võtaress
Tiger	tigress	Widower	widow

c. THIRD, BY PREFIXING ANOTHER WORD; AS,

Masculinc. Cock-sparrow	Feminine. hen-sparrow	Masculine. Man-servant	Feminine. maid-servant
<i>Hc-</i> goat	she-goat	Male-child	female-child

- d. Several words have the same termination for both masculine and feminine; as, guide, guardian. Some have a feminine but no masculine; as, laundress, empstress, Amazon, brunette, dowager, jointress, mantua-maker, milliner, shrew, stren, vixen, and virago.
- e. In a few words, such as poet, author, &c., when the office or profession, and not the sex of the individual is intended, the masculine term is used; hat when we wish to distinguish the sex, the feminine noun must be employed to express the female. Thus, tho phrase "the poets and authors of the ago," includes both males and females; but "she is the best poetes in the country" signifies, that sho is the best only of her own sex.—Governess means, generally, a lady who instructs.
- f. Ster originally denoted the occupation of a woman; as, seam-ster, spin-ster, brew-ster. The term songster is now confined to birds. The word singer is applicable both to men and women; either the proper name, or the word mate or female, being employed to distinguish the sex. The termination ess is derived from the Norman-French; and ix, direct from the Latin.—Infant, a prince of the royal family either of Spain or Portugal, makes, in the feminine, Infanta.

Number.

LESSONS 14 to 17 .- Exercises 14 to 17 .- Page 11.

T. 14.—76. Number is the inflection of a noun, to indicate one object or more than one.

77. There are two numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

The Singular denotes one object; as, an apple. The Plural denotes more objects than one; as, apples.

The singular is always expressed by the noun in its simple form; as, apple, lox.

78. Rule 1.—The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding s to the singular; as, book, books; spoonful, spoonfuls.

When the plural s coalesces with the terminating letter of the singular, the noun retains the same number of syllables in the plural as in the singular; as, hand, hands. But when the singular ends with a effect, after the soft c, g, ch, or after ss, x, or z, the addition of s adds a syllable in the plural; as, face, fa-ces; kis, kis-cs; lox, lox-cs.

79. Rule 2.—a. Nouns in ch soft, s, sh, x, z, i, or in o, after a consonant, form the plural by adding es; as, church, churches:

miss, misses · lash, lashes; fox, foxes; topaz, topazes; rabbi, rabbies; hero, heroes; wo, woes.

The plural of words ending in th soft, in s, sh, &c. is here formed by adding th, because single s cannot be pronounced after those letters.

- b. Nouns ending in ch hard, in o after a rowel (with these words, canto, cento, grotto, halo, junto, motto, portico, proviso, quarto, octavo, duodecimo, memento, solo, tyro, violoncello, and virtuoso), take s only in the plural; as, monarch, monarchs; folio, folios; hamboo, hamboos; canto, cantos.
- c. The practice of spelling canto, cento, &c. with only s is a violation of Rule 2. a; es would be in conformity with it.
- 80. Rule 3.—a. Nouns in f or fe change, for the sake of an easier utterance, f or fe into res in the plural; as, loaf, loares; life, lives.
- b. But nouns in ff (and these words, belief, brief, chief, dwarf, fief, fife, grief, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, kerchief, mischief, proof, reef, roof, reproof, eafe, ecarf, strife, surf, turf, and wharf) follow the general rule, by adding s only; as, must, musis; grief, griefs. Staff, a stick, has stares in the plural; stare, a verse, is regular, as, stares. The compounds of staff are regular; as, distaff.
- change y into ics to form the plural; as, lady, ladics. But y after a rowel is not changed; as, day, days; attorney, attorneys. But my makes ies; as, colloquy, colloquies.

Words ending in y after a consonant were formerly spelt with it in the singular, as, fit, glorie; and thus, though we have substituted y for it in the singular, we setain it in the plural. The plural of alkali is alkalies.

82. Reie 5.—a. Some nouns, in forming the plural, take the old Saxon termination en; as,

Man	men	Footman	footmen
Woman	women	Child	children
Alderman	aldermen 🥳	0x	ozen
Statesman	statesm <i>en</i> 🧎	•	0221

b. The plural of English Proper Names in man is formed by adding s only; as, The Longmans; the Denmans. We also say, Turkomans, Mussulmans, Germans, talismans. But the compounds of the common noun man have men in the plural; as, Dutch-men, French-men.

83. Rule 6 .- a. The following form their Plurals irregularly:-

Singular.	Plural. cows, rarely kine feet geeso	Singular.	Plural.
Cow		Mrs.	Mesdames
Foot		Mouse	mico
Goose		Sow	sows, sometimes swins
Louse	lice Messra	Tooth	teeth

	following l	have two	plurais,	each	with	a	different
meaning:	 ·						
Singular.	Plu	ral.	Singular	•	Pli	ural	'. Igebraical
Brother	brothers (so same purer brethren (1 the same a profession)	ons of the nts) ocreons of society or	Index	indi qua inde ten	antitica xes (t	(a i) able	lgebraical s of con-
	/ dies (<i>for c</i> o	inina	Letter		ers (the ers (lit		
Die .	dice (small gaming)	cubes for	Pea	{ pear	se (the s (the	seed	ls as dis-
•	fish (the spe	ecics)		tin	ct obje	cts)	
Fish	$\begin{cases} \text{fishes } (ths \\ \text{as, 3, 4}) \end{cases}$	number;	Penny	{ pen	ce (<i>val</i> : nies (d	ue o istir	r amount) nct picces)
Genius	geniuses (p great mente genii (i spirits)	ersons of alpowers) maginary			·		

c. Other nouns, when used in the Plural, have a sense different from the singular; as.

d. Compounds, in which the principal word is placed first, vary the principal or first word to form the plural, and the adjunct to form the possessive case; as, Sing. father-in-law, Plur. father-in-law; Possessive, father-in-law's. So, courts-martial, atterney-general, aides-de-camp, cousins-german; Possessive, contramartial's, attorney-general's, aide-de-camp's, consin-german's. The Possessive Plural of such nouns is not used.

ce. Compounds ending in ful, and those also which have the principal word put last, form the plural by adding s or es to the last word; as, spoonfuls, man-traps, month-fuls, camera-obscuras, Ave-Marias, fellow-servants, maid-servants. But we say men-servants, women-servants, as each word is considered important.

T. 16.—81. Rule 7.—Nouns adopted, without alteration, from foreign languages, generally retain their original plurals.

1. From the Greek and Latin.

a. Those ending in um or on, change um or on into a in the plural; thus,

plural; thus	,		
Singular.	Piural.	Singular.	Plural.
Animalculum	animäleüla	Erratum	errata
Aphelion ·	aphēlia	Forum	fora
Arcanum	อกเฉียน	Frustum	frusta
Automaton	putomät <i>a</i>	Fulcrum	fulcra
Crittrion	critčria	Gymnāsium	gymnāsia
Datum*	data*	Lyccum	lycea and lyceums
Decaedron	decaedra .	Mausolëum	man=olēa
Dedderātum	desiderata	Mödlum	mēdia —
Effitium Emporium	efilūvia empēria	Memorandum	Inemoranda memorandums
Encomium	sencomia, (but fre- quently encomiums)	Momentum Parhélion	momenta parhelia

[•] In English, Ddium, ddla, have the first syllable long, though in Latin it is that; as, Dil-um, ddl-a.

Plural. Singular. Plural. Singular. scholia Schollum Phenomenon phenomena epecula Speculum perihèlia Perihelion succedines Succedancum postulāta Postulatum etadia Stadium strata Stratum

There are many other words in um occurring in the arts and sciences which follow this rule.

b. Those ending in is generally change is into es; thus,

Singular. Plural. Singular. Mětamorphosis 🖥 mětamorphöses 🕈 amanuenses Amanuensis anthitheses Parenthesis parentheses Antithüsis Phasis phases analysis analyses This thises ATI RXLI **रेडड्स** bases uz£0 Bisis CTIVE Crisis Some change is into ides; as, Distresis distreses chrysalides ellipser Chrysolia Ellipsis emphases. ephemerides. Ephemerú Emphasis Hypothesis hypothěses Proboscis proboseldes ignes fitul \mathbf{r}_{od} tripodes Ignis fitnus

c. Those ending in a, us, en, ex, ix, or x, after a consonant, change a into ae in the plural, us into i, en into ina, ex or ix into ices, and x, after a consonant, into ces; thus,

Singular. Plural. Singular. Plural. Nebula Aper apices or apexes něbulac appendicer Nücleus núclei Appendix Radius radii Calculus calculi calces Radix Calx radices Colossur stamina (solids of the colossi Focus foct human body) Stamen Foramen forămina stamens (when used Fungus fungi of flowers) Formila formulae Stimulus stimple (indices (algebraical Vertex vertices Index (see 83.6.) quantilles) Phosphurus phosphöri indexes (tables of Polypus půľypí Index contents or pointers) Vortex TOTLICES Lamina laminge Quincunz quincunces Larra larvae Ranunculus ranunchli Legumen legumina earcophig! Eurcophägus Magus măgi Tumillus tumuli Macula maçulae **Vertebra** vertebrae Minutia minutiae

d. Genus makes, in the plural, genera; miasma, miasmāta; doņma, dogmāta, and doņmas. Appardius, congeries, census, hidlus, vēries, spēcies, and superficies, are the same in both numbers.

2. From the Hebrew.

Singular. Plural. Singular. Plural. Chèrab (chèrabim Seraph tèraphim

3. From the French.

Singular. Plural. Singular. Plural. Beau beaux Madame merdames Chamois chamois Monsieur Inessieurs Chateau chateaux Piateau platenux Flambean finmbeaux

In English, the penultimate of Metamorphisis is there, but long in Greek as, Metamorphisis.

4. From the Italian.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Bandit	bandits	Dilettanto	dilettanti
Banditto	banditt <i>i</i>	Virtuõso	virtuõsi
Cicerons	ciceron <i>i</i>		

- L. 17.—85. Rule 8.—a. Some nouns have the same termination for both numbers; as, deer, sheep, swine, trout, salmon, &c. The singular of such words is generally denoted by the article a or an; as, "a sheep," "a trout."
- b. The words horse, foot, infantry, caratry, denoting bodies of soldiers, have a singular form, with generally a plural signification. Also the words cannon, shot, and sall, have, in general, a plural sense. The singular of these latter words is denoted by the article a, as a cannon. (See 335.)
- 86. a. Some nouns have no plural; such as Proper names, the names of metals, fossils, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities, and of things that are weighed or measured; as, gold, marl, industry, idleness, insolence, reading, geometry, wisdom, flour, wine.
- b. The only exceptions to this rule are, when more individuals than one, of the same name, are intended, as, the Howards, the Johnsons; and also when the different sorts are meant, as, the readings, the vines, tho wheats, tho leas, the collons. An accurate, though a stiff mode of expression, would be to say the different sorts of wheat, of tea, &c. We may say "The specific gravilies of two different bodies," because the sorts or kinds are intended. But to say "negligences or ignorances" is incorrect. We should say "acts of negligence or of ignorance."
- c. Proper nouns, when pluralized, follow the same rules as common nouns; as, Venus, the Venuses; Ajax, the Ajaxes; Cato, the Catoes; Henry, the Henries; except when ambiguity or an impropriety would occur; as, "the Wolfs."
- d. With respect to two or more nouns in concordance, forming a name and a title, the name is pluralized; as, "The Sir John Sinclairs are not of every day's occurrence." So when there are two or more of the same name, in conversion, we pluralize the name; as, the Miss Thompsons; but in addressing letters to them, we pluralize the title; as, "To the Misses Thompson." (See Syntax, 247.)
- e. The plural of words, letters, and numerals is generally formed by the apostropho (') and s; as, "Dot your i's; cross your i's; mind your h's; seven 5's, eight 7's." "They have avoided the thereunto's, whereby's, thereof's, who's, &c." We write, however, the Ayes and Noes.

87. a. Other words are used only in the plural; as the following:—

Alms Letters (literature) Pleiads Cresses Annals Customs Lungs(in com.lang.)Riches Antipodes Drawers Minütiæ Snuffers Manners Archives Dregs Ecissors. Ashes Matinz Shears Embers Shambles Assets Entrails Mallows Bellows Meanles Sessions (assizes) Fetters Betters Filings Morals Sweepstakes Billiards Nippers Suds Fives Bowels Folk (not folks) Nones Tidings Tougs Breeches Nuptials Goods Thanks Compasses Hatches Oats Clothes Ve-pers Нозе Odds Cattle Hysterics Orgles Vitals Victuals Calenda Pains (care) Ides Credenda. Lees Pincers. Wages

- b. Pains may be preceded by the word great, but never by much. The phrase "Much pains have been taken," should therefore be, "Great pains have been taken." Means and amends, eignifying one object, have a singular verb; signifying more than one, a plural verb. (See 358). Gallour is always singular, as, "The gallows is erected." Near is generally singular, rarely plural; as, "News has arrived." Lungs in scientific lang, has a singular; thus, "Right lung, left lung." People denotes a number of persons; peoples, different tribes and nations. Summonus is sing.; summonus, plur.
- 88. With regard to the words conics, cthics, mathematics, optics, physics, pneumatics, politics, and other similar names of sciences, good writers are much divided. Analogy would recommend a plural construction, but several modern writers use a singular verb; as, "Mathematics is the science;" or, by giving the clause a different construction; as, "The science of Mathematics is intended."—Politics has generally a plural verb. With all these words, in whatever number the verb is considered, the pronouns must correspond. (See 320. c.)

LESSON 18.-Person,-Exercises 18. a. & b.-Page 13.

- 89. a. Nouns may be said to have three persons, the first, the second, and the third.
- b. The first person is the speaker; as, "I, John Thompson, do promise." The second person is the person spoken to; as, "Boys, attend to your lessons." The third person is the person spoken of; as, "That girl is diligent."

Case.

- 90. a. Case is either the form or state of a noun or pronoun, to express the relation which it bears to other words.
- b. Case, from Casus, a falling, is so called, because cases were supposed by the Greeks and Romans to fall or decline from the nominative or first form, called the upright (rectus). All other forms of the noun than the nominative were called cases or casus chiquis, oblique cases.
- 91. Nouns have three cases, the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.
- 92. a. The Nominative expresses the name of the person or thing which acts, or which is the subject of discourse.
- b. In addressing persons or things, the noun is said to be in the Nominative of Address; as, "John. be attentive."—The Case Absolute also is in English the Nominative; as, "John having left, everything went wrong."
- 93. a. The Possessive is the form in which a noun is used to show that something belongs to the person or thing denoted by the noun. It is formed in the singular by adding a comma (') called an apostrophe, with the letter s to the nominative; as, Nom. Father, Possess. Father's.

When the Plural ends in s, the Possessive is formed by adding only an apostrophe (') as, Fathers'.—When the Plural does not end in s, then both the apostrophe and s must be added; as, Plur. men; Poss. Plur. men's.

- b. In Poetry, when the Singular ends in es, the Possessive is formed by adding only an apostrophe; as, "Achilles' wrath."—In Prose also, when the Singular ends in ss or ence, the Possessive is generally formed by adding only an apostrophe.—In other endings both the apostrophe and s are added; as, "Felix's room."—Proper Names in ss take the apostrophe and s; as, "Bass's ale."
- c. The possessive sign 's is applied to persons or animals; as, "A man's hat;"
 "A dog's sagacity." The case ending ('s) is also attached to objects inanimate when personified; as, "Reason's voice;" and also in a few phrases denoting a period of time; as, "A few hours' leisure." The particle of, or Norman Genitive, is applied in general to inanimate objects; as, "The roof of the house;" "The binding of the book."
- d. The sign's (s with an apostrophe before it) is called the Sazon genitive or possessive, and is a contraction of es or is; thus, "Man's wisdom," "King's crown," were formerly written "Manes wisdom," "King's crown," or "King's crown." The mark' is called by the Greek name apostrophe, signifying a turning off, because it shows the turning off or ordiscion of the rowel e or i.—As the sign's was never a contraction of the pronoun his, such valgarisms as "John his book," have long ceased to be employed by good writers. The valgarism originated from a typographical error which first appeared and is still retained in the Book of Common Prayer, in the collect "for all conditions of men."
- 94. a. The Objective case expresses the name of the person or thing which is the object of an action implied in a transitive verb, or which follows a preposition; as, "I love Henry." "They live in London."
- b. The doer of an action is called the agent; the person or thing affected by the action is called the object.
- c. In substantives, the nominative and objective cases are the same in form, being distinguishable from each other only by their situation; thus,

Nom. Objec. Here the meaning is reversed by the interchange of nouns, the nominative or agent being known by its being placed before the verb, and the object of the action by its following it.

95. a. Declining a noun is naming its cases and numbers. Nouns are thus declined:-

Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Flur.
Nom. Father	Fathers	Nom. Man	Men
Poss. Father's	Fathers'	Poss. Man's	Men's
Obj. Father	Fathers	Oij. Man	Men

- b. "John has cut Thomas's finger." Here John is the actor or doer of comething, and is therefore in the nominative case; has cut, is a verb, and affirms what action has been done by John, finger is the object in which the action terminates, and is therefore in the objective case; and Thomas's is in the possessive case, because it denotes the owner of the finger.
- c. To find the nominative case, ask the question Who? or Who? with the verb, and the word that answers to the question will be the nominative case to the verb; as in the preceding example, "Who has cut Thomas's finger?" Answer, "John;" therefore John is in the nominative case.

t.

d. The objective case of a verb may be known by asking the question, Whom? or What? with the verb; as, "What did John ent?" Ans. "The finger of Thomas." The word finger is therefore in the objective case, and governed by the active verb hat cal.

Table of Nouns.

1. Proper	11. Strictly Properas, Johnson, London. 22. Partly Commonas, the Johnsons; a Milton.
2. Common	(1. Class Names
5. Abstract	1. Names of Qualities

3. ADJECTIVES.

LESSON 19.-Exercise 19.-Page 14.

- 96. a. An Adjective is a word used with a noun to denote some quality, number, quantity, or other attribute belonging to the person or thing represented by the noun; as, "A good man;" "twenty horses;" "many books;" "green grass;" "different ways."
- b. The Adjective does not affirm, but simply points out some property or attribute, not by itself, but as conjoined with a subject. The Substantive or Noun denotes the substance; the Adjective merely defines or limits the kind of substance. Thus, man is a general term; a man denotes one, but not any one in particular;—a good man, a tall man, a going man, an old man, denote different kinds of men.
- c. By the term attribute is meant some quality or property belonging to a person or thing; thus, power and wisdom are the attributes of our Creator; redness or whiteness is an attribute belonging to a rose. The words power, wisdom, redness, whiteness, are nouns, as they express these qualities existing independently of any substance.—The word which denotes the quality or attribute as conjoined with the subject is called an Attributive (or something assigned to another) or Adjective (or something added to something else); as, in the phrases, "Our powerful and wise Creator;" "A red or white rose."
 - 97. Adjectives are of various kinds; 1. Qualitative or Ordinary; 2. Proper; 3. Numeral (including Cardinal, Ordinal, and Multiplicative); 4. Distributive; 5. Demonstrative; 6. Definitive; and 7. Indefinite.
 - 98. a. Qualitative or Ordinary Adjectives denote some quality or attribute belonging to a person or thing represented by the noun; as, good, large, square, green. To this class belong Verbal and Compound adjectives.
 - b. Verbal Adjectives end in ing or ed, except when irregular; as, "A moving spectacle;" "A heated imagination."
 - c. Compound Adjectives are composed of two or more primitive words, connected by a hyphen (-); as, "Nut-brown ale;" "Party-spirit zeal."
 - d. Adjectives in English are of the same gender and number as the nonns with which they are conjoined; but their terminations are not raried as in French, Latin, Greek, and most other languages; thus we say, "a good boy;" "a good girl;" "good boys;" "good girls."
 - 99. Proper Adjectives are derived from Proper names; as, English, from England; Ciceronian, from Cicero.
 - 100. Numeral Adjectives include the Cardinal, Ordinal, and Multiplicative.
 - a. The Cardinal Numerals denote an exact number of things; as, two, ten.

Cardinal, so called from cardo, a hinge, on which the ordinals turn.—The words hundred, thousand, million, dozen, are considered Kouns when the article is prefixed.

Ordinal Adjectives denote the order or succession of things;
 as, first, second, third, &c.

- c. The Multiplicative expresses how many times one thing exceeds another; as, double, twofold, tirple, threefold, &c.
- 101. The Distributives denote objects taken separately. They are each, every, either, neither, when conjoined with nouns; as, "Every man has his duty."
- 102. a. The Demonstrative Adjectives are this, that, these, those, yon, when placed before nouns. This points out a near object; that refers to one at some distance; and yon to the most distant.
- b. The Definitive are the articles a, an; and the, previously explained.
- c. Sometimes adjectives with the definite article prefixed are used without the noun; as, "The good are happy," that is, good people.
- 103. a. The Indefinite express a variety of meanings, but mostly refer to persons or things in a vague or general manner. They are all, any, some, no, much, enough, whole, applied both to number and quantity.—Many, few, several, certain, divers, applied to number.—Both refers to two either individuals or classes.—None is no-one, not any.—To this class may be added such, the same, alone (single, solitary), and only (in the sense of that one, and not another).
- b. All denotes the whole, whether quantity or number; ns, "All the corn;" "all the men."—Any is sometimes used indefinitely for one; as, "If the soul shall sin against any of the commandments;" sometimes for some; as, "Who will show us ony good?" sometimes for every one; as, "Anybody can do that."—No is used before a noun; none, without one; as, "Anybody can do that."—No is used before a noun; none, without one; as, "No man;" "I have seen none."—None is used in both numbers.—Several and divers signify more than two, but not many.—Some, when used clone, denotes a larger number than several; when prefixed to one, man, person, &c., as, some one, &c., some requires n singular verb; as, "some person mays to."—Much (the opposite to little) denotes a quantity; as, "Much money;" it is sometimes joined with collective nouns to denote number in the aggregate; as, "Much company."—Many (the opposite of fee) denotes an indefinite number; as, "Few were present."
 - c. The words little, less, lead, much, more, most, enough, whole, are sometimes used as substantives; as, "Much has been said, but little has been done." "He has enough." "He gave him the whole."
 - d. Sometimes nouns being prefixed to other nouns are used as adjectives; as, corn-field, tilk-mill.

LESSON 20.—Exercise 20.—Page 14.

Comparison of Adjectives.

- 104. a. Comparison is the inflection of an Adjective to denote the increase or decrease of the quality implied in the adjective. Only qualitative and a few indefinite adjectives admit of comparison.—There are two degrees of comparison,—the Comparative and Superlative.
- b. The Positive state or form is the simple quality itself, and is therefore not a degree; as, hard, short.

- 105. a. The Comparative degree (generally ending in cr) expresses a greater degree of the quality than the positive; as, harder, shorter.
- b. The Superlative degree (generally ending in est) expresses the highest degree of the quality; as, hurdest, shortest.

The Comparative refers to two persons or things; the Superlative to more than two.

- 106. a. The Comparative of words of one syllable is formed by adding r to the positive when it ends in e, and er when it ends in a consonant; as, wise, wiser; great, greater.—The Superlative is formed by adding st to a vowel, and est to a consonant; as, wise, wisest; great, great-est.
- b. If the adjective ends with a single consonant after a single vowel, the consonant is doubled; as, sad, sad-der, sad-dest; hot, hot-ter, hot-test. (See 49.)
- c. When speaking of the Deity we generally prefix the word most; as, "The Most High."
- 107. a. Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by prefixing more and most to the positive; as, generous, more generous, most generous.
- b. Verbals, like other Qualitatives, have degrees of comparison; as, more and most learned.
- c. Adjectives either of one or two syllables ending in y after a consonant, change y into i before er and est; as, happy, happier, happiest. But y after a rowel is not changed into i before er and est; as, gay, gayer, gayest.
- d. Dissyllables ending in e are often compared by er and est; as, ample, ampler, amplest;—also words accented on the last syllable have sometimes er and est; as, discreet'er, discreet'est.
- e. More and most, less, lesst, when prefixed to adjectives, may be considered either as Adverbs or forming part of the Adjectives.
- f. The words very, exceedingly, abundantly, &c. are employed to increase the quality expressed by the positive; as, "very good."
- g. Sometimes an adjective is placed between the Superlative and its noun; as, "The greatest possible injury was inflicted;" that is, the greatest injury which was possible.
- 108. a. Diminution of quality, whether the adjective is of one sylluble or of more than one, is formed by less and least; as, less-happy, least-happy.
- b. The termination ich serves to diminish the quality; as, black, blackin, or tending to blackness. The adverb rather also expresses a small degree of the quality; as, rather little.
- c. Various minute differences between degrees of comparison are expressed by little, much, far, &c.; as, "a little better;" "much better;" "very far distant."
 - 109. a. The following adjectives are compared irregularly:-

Positive. Comparative. Superlative.
Good, better, best.
Bad, evil, ill, worse, worst.
Far, farther, farthest.

Para.	109	.]
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Superlative. Positiry. Comparative. foremost, or first. former. Fore. furthest, further. (Forth). latest (in time). Late, later. last (in order). latter. least. Little. less. most. Much, many, more. nearest. Near. nearer. nighest, next. nigher. Nigh. oldest, eldest. 014. older, elder.

b. Further and furthest are sometimes adverbs. Further is used as a rerb in the Book of Common Prayer; as, "Further as with Thy continual help."—Latter, lat, are opposed to Former, first. Elder and elder are generally applied to persons of the same family; as, "The elder brother." Older and oldest are applied to persons or things in general; es, "The oldest man."

110. Some adjectives form the Superlative by annexing most to the end of the word; as,

hindmost or hindermost. Hind. hinder. upmost or uppermost. Up (prep.), upper. inmost or innermost. In (prep.), inner. outmost, utmost, uttermost. Out (prep.), outer or utter. Fore. foremost (in place). former. first (in time or order).

111. a. Prior, superior, ullerior, exterior, inferior, &c., which have the form of Latin Comparatives, are not to be considered as comparatives in English, and, consequently, are not followed by than, as English comparatives are.

b. Some adjectives have no comparison, such as do not admit extension or diminution.

These are, 1. Words expressive of figure; as, round, square, &c.

- 2. Numerals; as, three, four, first, second, &c.
- 3. Words implying matter, time, place, &c.; as, wooden, daily, English, Mosaic, <u>د</u>د.
 - 4. Words denoting unity and universality; 23, all, sole, alone, universal, &c.
- 5. Words which, in their simple form, denote the highest or lowest degree of the quality; as, chief, extreme, supreme, perfect, &c.

In the language of excessive grief, anger, love, admiration, &c., poets and orators frequently, and allowably transgress No. 5.

Table of Adjectives.

4. PRONOUNS.

LESSON 21.—Exercise 21.—Page 15.

- 112. a. A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun, to avoid repeating it in the same sentence; as, "When Caesar had conquered Gaul, he turned his arms against his country." (Here, he and his are pronouns.)
- b. Pronouns may be divided into the following classes:—1. Personal;—2. Relative;—3. Interrogative;—4. Reflexive or Compound Personal;—5. Compound Possessive;—6. Compound Relative; and 7. Adjective Programs.

1. Personal (or Substantive) Pronouns.

- 113. Personal Pronouns are the substitutes for the names of persons. There are five personal pronouns; namely, I, thou, he, she, and the pronoun it, which is applied to things.
- 114. a. Personal Pronouns have two numbers, the singular and plural; and three persons in each number; namely, I, the first person, represents the speaker; Thou, the second person, represents the person spoken to; He, she, it, the third person, represents the person or thing spoken of.
- b. Pronouns, like nouns, have three genders; but variety of form, to distinguish the sex, is confined to the third person. He is masculine, the is feminine, it is neuter.—Pronouns of the first and the second person are either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the speaker or of the person addressed.
- 115. a. Personal Pronouns have three cases; the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective; and are thus declined:—
- 1st Pers. 2nd Pers. 3rd Pers. m. 3rd Pers. f. 3rd Pers. neut.

 Sing. Nom...1, thou, he, she, it.

 "Poss...My, mine, thy, thine, his, her, hers, its. (Sce116.e.)

 "Poss...Me, thee, him, her, it.

 Plur. Nom...We, you, ye, they, they, they, they,

 "Poss...Our, ours, your, yours, their, theirs, their, theirs,

 "Obj...Us, you, occasions, in poetry, and in the instances
- b. Thou is used only on solemn occasions, in poetry, and in the instances mentioned in 161. For is used instead of thou in general conversation. We is frequently used by persons in authority, and by authors and editors, instead of the first pers. singular.
- 116. a. My, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, are always put before nouns; as, "This is my, thy, his, her house;" or, the house of me, of thee, &c.
 - b. Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs, with his, and its, are

used without nouns; as, "This house is mine, thine, his, hers," &c.

- c. My, hy, her, our, your, their, are mere abbreviations of mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs, which latter are, probably, the original possessive cases of the Personal Pronouns. In parsing, it is a matter of little importance whether both forms, my, mine, &c. be considered the possessive cases of the Personal Pronouns, or as Possessive Pronouns.—Ifine and thine, &c. are not exactly equivalent in sense to of me, of thee, &c.; for, sometimes they have an active sense denoting possession; while of me, of thee, have sometimes a rassive sense denoting the object; thus, "The mind is a part of me, of myelf," would be rendered in Latin, "Mens est pars mei," and not "pars mea," which latter denotes simple possession. Similarly, "Imago nostri" is the picture of our person; but, "Imago nostra" is that which we possess.
- d. Mine and thine are sometimes, for the sake of capbony, used in solemn and poetic language, instead of my and My, before a substantive or adjective beginning with a vowel or client h; as, "Blot out all mine iniquities." In writing, the words hers, ours, yours, theirs, must always be spelled without an apostrophe, and never as her's, our's, &c.
- e. His and her frequently occur in the Bible for its, showing that its is only of recent use; thus, in Gen. i. 11, "fruit tree—after his kind;" Gen. iv. 11, "The earth—opened her mouth." Its, however, occurs in Levit, xxv. 5, "of its own accord."

Relative, Interrogative, Reflexive Pronouns, &c.

LESSON 22. - Exercise 22. - Page 15.

2. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

- 117. The Relative refers to some noun, pronoun, or phrase going before, which is thence called the Antecedent; as, "The how wishes to become clever must be studious;" here, who, the relative, refers to the antecedent, boy.
 - 118. a. The Relatives are who, which, that, and what.
- b. Who is applied to Persons; Which to infants, irrational animals, and things without life. That may be used for who or which to avoid repetition, and is applied both to persons and things; but not to proper names. We never say, "John that said so," but "John who said so."—What is sometimes a compound relative, including both the antecedent and relative, and is thus equivalent to that which, or those which; as, "Give me what I want;" that is, "that which I want."
- 119. a. Who and Which have the same form in both numbers, and are thus declined:—

Sing. and Plur. Nom. Who. Post. Whose. Obj. Whom. Sing. and Plur. Nom. Which. Poss. Of which, or Whose. Olf. Which.

- b. That is also used only in the Nom. and Object., without any variation.
- c. Which and What, when conjoined with nouns, are used as Adjectives; as, "By thich means;" "What energy he has shown." What is sometimes used adverbially; as, "The country having been wasted, what by this misfortune, and what by that, has nothing left; here, what is equivalent to parily. What (how great) was our astonishment! What is sometimes the substitute for a clause; as, "I tell thee what, I could a tale unfold;" that is, "I could a tale unfold, this is what I tell thee."—What is sometimes an interjection; as, "What! can you not hear?"

d. That is used—1st. As a Relative, when it can be turned into who or which, without altering the sense; as, "They that (who) reprove us."—2nd. As a Demonstrative Anjective, when it refers to a nonn either expressed or understood; as, "That boy is diligent;" "Give me that;"—or to a subsequent clause; as, "Laesar replied—that—no lands were recant." "He never denied—that—the letter was lost." "We hear—that—he is industrious." "That—he would have altained greater eminence—is uncertain."—Srd. As a Conjunction, when it connects to a former clause another denoting a cause, purpose, consequence, in order that; as, "He is studious, that (for this purpose) he may become learned." "In that (because) He died, He died unto sin." "Attend that (why?) you may receive instruction."

3. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

- 120. a. The Integratives are used in asking questions. They are Who, Which, and What.
- b. Who, used interrogatively, is applied only to unknown persons; What to things; and Which to both persons and things. Who also inquires for a person's name, and what for his occupation or character; as, "Who is he?" "What is he?" "What is he?"
- c. In such expressions as, "What man will dare to affirm this?" the word what, as Dr. Cromble observes, implies complete ignorance of the individual. "Which man will dare, &c.?" implies that he is one of a number in some measure known to the inquirer.
- d. Whether, signifying which of the two, was in current use when the authorized translation of the Bible was made; as, "Whether is easier to say, &c.?" Here, thether is the nominative to is. Whether is now, however, obsolete in this sense, its place being supplied by which.—Whether, when used as a Conjunction, retains much of its original character, and denotes which of two alternatives; as, "Decide whether you will write or not;" that is, "You will write or not; decide which or whether."
- 121. a. REFLEXIVE OR COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.—Self, plur. šelves (which is properly a noun), is attached to the Possessive Cases of Pronouns of the 1st and 2nd Persons, and to the Objective of the 3rd Person, to render them emphatical; as, myself, ourselves; himself, themselves. 'The words thus conjoined are called Reflexive Pronouns, because the person or thing spoken of is the same as the person or thing denoted by the leading noun or pronoun.
- b. These words have only the Nominative and Objective Cases in both numbers; thus:—
- 5. Nom...I, myself, thou, thyself, he, himself, the, herself, it, itself, him, himself, her, herself, it, itself, him, himself, her, herself, it, itself, Pl. Nom...We, ourselves, you, yourselves, you, yourselves, them, themselves.

The Reflexive Pronouns are of the same person as the personal pronouns with which they are connected, and the verb must agree with them accordingly; as, 1. I myself write; 2. Thou thyself writer; 3. He himself writes; Plur. 1. We ourselves write, &c.

c. When S.ly is connected with the Indefinite Pronoun one, it is in some instances, 1. a Noun; as, "One despises one's self," denoting character or ability; 2. a Reflexive Pronoun; as, "One despises one-self;" denoting the object of its own action. Both forms, one's self and one-self are correct, but with a difference of meaning.

- d. When One is used as the subject of a verb, the word one must be repeated; and not a personal pronoun introduced; as, "One ought to know oncelf," and not himself. But, when a noun or personal pronoun is the subject, then a noun or personal pronoun is the object; as, "A man should improve himself;" "We should improve ourselves." (See 121—4. d.)
- 122. COMPOUND POSSESSIVES.—Own is added to the Possessives my, thy, his, her, its, our, your, their, to express property or possession emphatically; as, "my own;" "your own."
- 123. COMPOUND RELATIVES.—The Relatives Who, Which, What, have sometimes annexed to them the words ever and soever; thus:—

who-ever he who which-ever whether one what-ever the things which.

These words are a kind of Compound Relatives, being equivalent to he who, the person who, that which, &c.; as, "Whoever will, may take;" "Whosoever will, let him come."

Whosoerer is the only one declinable, and is thus formed: [Nom. Who-soever; Poss. Whose-soever; Obj. Whom-soever.]

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

LESSON 23 .- Exercise 23 .- Page 16.

- 124. Adjective Pronouns are those words which are sometimes used with nouns, and sometimes without. When used with nouns they are Adjectives; without nouns they are regarded as Pronouns.
- They may be divided into Five Classes:—1. The Possessive,—2. The Distributive;—3. The Demonstrative;—4. The Indefinite;—5. The Reciprocal.
- 1. a. The Possessive Pronouns are Mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, being used without nouns; as, "This book is mine, that is yours." These words are similarly considered in French.
- b. The Possessive Adjectives are My, thy, his, her, our, your, their, being used with nouns; as, "This is my or our house." They are also considered in this class in French.
- c. In Latin, the same form would be used for both my, mine; the, thine; &c.; thus, "My brother is diligent, but yours is litle,"—"Meus frater diligens est, tous piger." In parsing, however, as previously noticed, it is of no importance, whether the distinction here given be observed, or both forms be regarded as the postessive one of the personal pronouns.
- 2. a. The Distributive Pronouns denote the persons or things that make up a number considered separately. They are Each, either, neither, when used without nouns; as, "Each in his

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For the proper application of these words, see Syn. order." 360.

- b. Every is always an Adjective. When every is connected with one, as in every-one, it may be considered as part of a Compound Indefinite.
- 3. The Demonstrative Pronouns are This, these, that, those; as, "Give me this; take that."—This denotes an object near to the speaker; that, one more distant.
- 4. a. The Indefinite Pronouns speak of persons or things in a vague or general manner. They are Any, other, another, and one used for any man. To these may be added Some-one, every-one, no-one, such, such-a-(one), the same. (See 103. a.)

Such-as, the same-as, are correlatives, the latter word being the reciprocal of the former.

- b. Any is used indefinitely for one; as, "If a soul sin against any of the commandments;"—sometimes for some; as, "Who shall show us any good?"—sometimes for every one; as, "Any body can do that."
- c. Other signifies the second of two objects .- Another is an and other .- Other is sometimes used as a substitute for a noun, and has then a plural number, with the regular cases; as, S. Nom. Other; Poss. Other's; Obj. Other; Pl. N. Others; Poss. Others'; Obj. Others.
- d. One, when not a numeral, is used, 1. As an Indefinite Pronoun in the sense of any man; as, "One would imagine he (alluding to an absent person) had spoken that in jest." 2. Sometimes one is used as a noun, having the regular cases and numbers; as, 5. Nom. One; Poss. One's; Obj. One; Pl. N. Ones; Poss. Ones'; Obj. Ones; thus, we say, "The great ones of the earth." (See 121. d.)
- e. Sometimes One, other and similar words are only apparently nonns, when in reality they are Adjectives having nouns understood; as, "Virtue and vice are different in their nature and consequences, the one (quality) leads to happiness, the other (quality) to misery."
- 5. a. The Reciprocal Pronouns are each other, one another, and are so called because they denote the mutual influence which the agents and objects have upon each other.—Each other refers to two; one another to more than two.
- b. Illustration .- The phrase "They heard each other's voice," may be explained thus, "They each heard the voice of the other,"-each is here in the Nom. Case in apposition with they.—"They read each other's poems," that is, "They each read the poems of the other."

Table of Pronouns.

- - 1. Possessive Pronouns as, Mine, thine, his, hera. 2. Distributive Pronouns as, Each, either, neither. 3. Demonstrative Pronouns as, This, that.

 - as, Any, other, one. 4. Indefinite as, Each-other, &c. S. Reciprocal

5. VERBS.

LESSON 24,-Exercise 24.-Page 17.

- 126. a. A Verb is a word which affirms or asserts that a person or thing is—lst, either existing; as, "I am;" or, 2nd, doing something; as, "I teach:" or, 3rd, is the object of some action; as, "I am taught."
- b. A Verb is also used to command, exhort, entreat, request, or ask a question; us, "Be eilent;" "Sudy diligently;" "Spare nio;" "Lend me the book;" "Hare you written the letter?"
- c. The person or thing about which comething is affirmed is called the Subject; the word which expresses the affirmation is the Verb; the person or thing affected by the affirmation is the Object, a term signifying laid in the way; thus, in the phrase, "The master teaches me;" the Subject is master, the Verb is leaches, the Object is me.
- d. An Adjective differs from a verb in not affirming, but merely denoting some quality or property either inherent in or belonging to the person or thing with which it is conjoined; thus in the phrase, "A prudent man," the quality called prudent is arruned as belonging to man, either naturally or habitually, but not affirmed. But, when I say "the man is prudent," an affirmation is made, that the man possesses the quality of prudence.
- 127. Verbs are of two kinds, Transitive or Active, and Intransitive or Newter.
- 128. a. A Transitive or Active Verb expresses action passing from an agent or doer to some object; as, "The master teaches me."
- d. The term transitive signifies passing over. The doer of an action is called the agent.
- c. The object of a transitive verb is sometimes understood; as, "John calls;" me, him, &c., being understood. Transitives not having their objects expressed, frequently imply habits; as, "Thomas reads and writes well."
- d. A few verbs, originally active, are sometimes applied in a neuter or intranslitie sense; as, "The cloth tarr," that is, is capable of being torn; "the pain thoots," that is, passes rapidly from one part to another. "Horrey tastes pleasant." "The sentence does not read well."
- 129. An Intransitive Verb expresses either no action at all, but simply the state, or condition of the nominative; as, "I am;" "I stand;" or action confined to the agent; as, "I run;" "I walk."
- a. Intransitive means not passing over. Sometimes, an Intransitive verb becomes, by the addition of a preposition, what is termed a compound transitive; thus, "She smiles," is intransitive; but, "She smiles on him," is transitive, and in this sense may become passive; as, "He is smiled on."
- b. Some verbs are used cometimes in a transitive, and cometimes in an intransitive sense; only the construction determining to which kind they belong. In a few colloquial phrases, some verbs originally neuter appear to assume an active import; thus, "To grow flowers," "to wait a horse." These may be resolved into—to cause or make flowers grow, and a horse run, walk, &c.
- 130. Reflexive Verbs denote that the subject and object of the verb are the same; as, "Thou hast hurt thyself."

- 131. Transitive Verbs have two Voices, Active and Passive.
- Voice has been styled the Active or Passive expression of a Transitive Verb.
- 132. The Active Voice expresses action passing from an agent to some object; as, "The master teaches me."
- 133. The Passive Voice denotes that the nominative is acted upon by some agent, and is formed by the perfect participle of a transitive verb and some tense of the verb to be; as, "John is taught by the master."
 - 134. a. Intransitive Verbs have properly no Passive Voice.
- b. In the phrases "he has come," "he is come," which are both in current use, has denotes the completion of an action, and is the mere presence of a person.
- 135. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs are divided into Regular and Irregular.
- 136. A Regular verb is one that forms its past tense and perfect participle by the addition of d or ed to the Present; as, Present, love: Past, loved: Perfect Participle, loved.
- 137. a. An Irregular verb is one that does not form its past tense and perfect participle by the addition of d or ed to the present; as, Present, arise; Past, arose; Perfect Participle, arisen.
- b. In the formation of the Past Tense and Perfect Participle, it must be observed, that in some verbs the radical vowels are changed, and the Perfect Participle ends in en; in others, the unaccented syllable ed is added to the verb. As the great majority of our verbs (about 4,000) are formed in the latter manner, they are properly termed Regular; while these formed by changing the radical vowel are termed Irregular verbs (amounting only to about 200).
- c. Several modern writers, adopting the nomenclature of Jacob Grimm, the German philologist, call the Conjugation formed by the addition of d or ed in the Past Tense and Perfect Participle the West conjugation, and that formed by the change of the vowels the Strong conjugation. But, as no advantage whatever would be gained by adopting these terms, the long established and familiar designation of Regular and Irregular Verbs has been retained.
- 138. In the full Conjugation of English Verbs, we make use of certain words called Auxiliaries, by means of which we can express every shade of meaning.
- 139. a. The Auxiliary Verbs are Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, and must. These, with the exception of Do, be, have, and will (in the sense of determination), are Defective, having only the Present and Past Indicative (their other tenses having fallen into disuse); thus:—

Pres.—Do, am, have, shall, will, may, can, must. Paet.—Did, was, had, should, would, might, could.

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- b. Be assists in forming the Passive Voice and the Progressive Tenses of Transitive Verbs;—Shall and Will in forming the Future Tenses, and Hare the Perfect and Past-Perfect Tenses of the Indicative Mood.—Do assists in forming the Emphatic and Interrogative forms, and May, Can, Must in forming the Potential Mood of Verbs.
- 140. Bc, hare, do, and will (in the sense of determination, disposal), when unconnected with other verbs, either expressed or understood, are not auxiliaries, but principal verbs, having the present and perfect Participles complete; as, "Being present, he voted;" "He has capacity, but no industry;" "He does as he pleases;" "He willed his estate."
- 141. A Monopersonal or Impersonal Verb is one that is used only in the third person singular; as, "It rains:" "It hails."—A Finite Verb is a verb in any mood except the Infinitive.
- 142. The modifications which Verbs undergo are effected by means of Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

Moods.

LESSON 25.—Exercise 25.—Page 17.

- 143. a. The Mood of a verb is the particular form which it assumes, in order to express the mode or manner in which an action or state is represented.
- b. In Greek and Letin, Moods and Tenses are formed chiefly (not exclusively) by a change of termination. In English, however, they are formed partly, by the cariations which the Simple Verb undergoes, but principally, by the combination of two or more words. The existing mode of arranging the English verbs has doubtlessly been suggested by the clearness and convenience with which the different parts or forms can thus be more easily explained, and more accurately applied.
- c. Were Inflection to be considered, as some grammarians assert, the sole characteristic of mood, tense, voice, and case, then we should be reduced to ome mood, namely, the Indicative; two tenses, the present and past; one voice, and two cases. But this mode would materially increase the difficulty of obtaining a correct knowledge of these forms and combinations of speech, which a just and convenient classification tends so vividly to exhibit. The observations of Mr. Smart on this subject are so appropriate that I shall here subjoin them:—"If by mood we are to understand inflections of the individual theme to signify modifications of its meaning, then it is certain that our verbs have no moods; but if a dividual expression may be deemed a mood, then have our verbs all the moods which may be found in any other language, and in all languages put together. The point is not worth disputing. As a practical question, grammarians have exitled it by assigning to our verbs as many moods as they have found convenient; and these are, the Indicative, the Imperative, the Potential, the Subjunctive, and the Infinitive."
- d. The Moods of Verbs show that a person has performed, will perform, or does perform, an action; or, secondly, that he may or can perform it, or ought to perform it; or, thirdly, that it is doubtful whether he will or will ne perform it; or, fourthly, that he has a right or authority to entreat or command some other person to perform it; or, fifthly, that the action requires only its bare exhibition, without any regard to an agent.

- 144. There are generally reckoned five moods; the Indicative, Imperative, Potential, Subjunctive, and Infinitive.
- 145. The Indicative Mood affirms, in a direct and positive manner, respecting an action or event; as, "He teaches;" "He is taught;" or, it asks a question; as, "Does he teach?" "Is he taught?" (See 203 to 209.)
- 146. The Imperative Mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or requests; as, "Go;" "study;" "spare me;" "let us go."

The Imperative Mood is confined to the second person singular and plural. (See 181. a.)

- 147. The Potential Mood implies the possibility or liberty, power, inclination, or duty to do or suffer an action, and is known by the signs may, can, might, could, would, should, put before the verb; as, "It may rain," &c.
- a. This mood, also, is used in asking questions; as, "May I write?" "Can you read?" May and might denote the possibility of doing a thing; can and could express the power; should denotes duty; and would, inclination or determination.
- b. The Potential was introduced into English by our earlier Grammarians, in mitation of the prevailing arrangement of Latin verbs. The verbs usually considered as signs of the Potential Mood have sometimes a strictly assertice import; and, in such instances, would, if translated, require to be rendered by separate verbs. But for all practical purposes, they may, in general, be considered as mere signs of this mood. (See 196, 197, &c.)
- 148. The Subjunctive Mood is employed when an uncertainty, supposition, condition, or dependence of an action or event on something else is expressed, and is generally preceded by if, though, except, lest, unless, or that; as, "He will improve (indic.), if he study" (subj.). "He promised (indic.) that he would write" (subj.). (See 395, 396.)
- a. In concessive clauses, that is, those preceded by though or although, which assume as granted that something is or was in existence, the Indicative Form of the verb is always used; as, "Though he hears, he does not attend;" "Though he was rich, he was not happy;" "Though I bear record of myself, my record is true."
 - b. Mustration of the Tenses in the Subjunctive Mood:-
- 1. Present Tense.—When uncertainty is indicated respecting something which either does or does not exist at this moment, but of which we are in doubt, the form of the Indicative Present must be used; as, "If it rains; ""If thou art poor;" "If he is honourable;" "If he acts as he ought."
- 2. Past Uncertainty.—When an uncertainty is implied respecting an action or event which, if it has existed at all, must now be past, the Past Tense of the Indicative must be used; as, "If Caesar was a tyrant;" "If Napoleon was banished;" "If he was present, he voted."—Though the Indicative forms are used in the Present and Past Tenses, they are both, in these instances, considered in the Subjunctive Mood.
- 3. A Future contingency is expressed, let, either by employing the verb without any change of termination, and without anyiliaries, which is the more general mode, as, "If it ruin to merrow;" "If thou hear any tidings;" or, 2ndly, by employing the auxiliaries should, would, &c., with the proper variations for each person; as, "If thou chould bear." In the Subjunctive Future, should implies a future contingency, would, a future volution.

- 4. The Supportional Tense (a term employed to distinguish it from the Past) 4. The supportional tense to term employed to distinguish to the the first is employed when speaking of a supposed action or event which may or may not happen at some unbequent period; as, "Were he in power," implies that he is not in power. "Were he an honest man he would pay his debts," implies that he is not honest. "Were he a king, how would he govern?" implies that he is not a king.
- 149. The Infinitive Mood (does not assert, but) simply exhibits the action, suffering, or state of being, without reference to time, or to number or person, and is generally known by the sign to before it; as, to hear.

a. The Infinitive, not being limited by tense, number, and person, is not properly a mood, but the simple form of the verh itself, and equivalent to a Verbal noun; and may thus become either, let, the Eubject; as, "To work strengthens the mind;" or, 2nd, the Object; as," He loves to study," that is, study.

b. To, before the Infinitive Mood, is considered as forming part of the verh; but in every other situation, to is a preposition.—To denotes that point of time or place to which motion or action tends, and in which it terminates; and, prefixed to an infinitive verb, holds it forth as the object to which the preceding verb is directed; thus, "I desire to learn;" "I desire, and the object or end of that desire is tearn or learning." When the infinitive verh is the immediate object of an action, and not a more remote object to which the action tends. to object of an action, and not a more remote object to which the action tends, to is dropped; thus, instead of saying, "I do to plough," I say, "I do plough," that is. I use or guide the plough.

Tenses.

LESSON 26.—Exercise 26.—Page 17.

150. Tense is a term used to distinguish the time in which an action or state is represented.

The observations which were made with regard to the formation of English Moods are equally applicable to the formation of our Tenses. The principle in both is not simply Inflection, but Combination, by which means the various circumrtances of time and action can be most clearly exhibited to the mind, and most readily applied. In the following definitions, therefore, while the usual nomenclature is retained, such an arrangementt of the different tenses has been adopted as will render their relative connection more evident than by the ordinary method.

151. a. Every action may be considered with regard to time, either as past, present, or future: each of which periods is represented by two tenses, a Simple and a Compound. There are thus six Tenses in English, namely,

Simple Tenses.

Compound Tenses.

Present. I call.

Present Perfect. I have called.

Past. I called. Past Perfect. I had called.
Future. I shall or will call. Future Perfect. I shall have called.

- b. The Simple Teness, it will be perceived, speak of Time absolutely; the Compound of Time relatively. Whether these Teness are designated Simple or Absolute, Compound or Relative, is a matter of no practical importance.
- c. The Tenses formed by Inflection alone, and usually called the Simple Tenses, are the Present and Past ns, "I call," "I called."
- d. Each tense, again, admits one or more subdivisions, to represent the simple, the propressire, or the emphatic form of the action or event; as, "I write," "I am writing," "I do write." (For Illustrations, see Remarks on the Tenses, 190.1

1 .- Simple Tenses.

- 152. The Present Tense speaks of what is doing or going on in present time; as, I write, I am writing, I do write. (See 190.)
- 153. The Past Tense represents an action or event either as finished at some past time; as, "I wrote the letter;" "I did write;" or, as begun, and still going on at a past time; as, "I was writing when you came."

The English Past Tense corresponds in its progressive form (was writing) to the Imperfect of the Latin, Greek, and French languages; and in its simple and emphatic forms (wrote, did write) to the Preterite or Perfect of those languages.

154. The Future represents an action or even which is yet to come; as, "I shall or will write the letter."

2.-Compound Tenses.

- 155. The Present Perfect Tense represents an action or event that has only just now (or very lately) been completed; as, "I have written the letter;" "I have been explaining the cause of day and night."—
- 156. The Past Perfect expresses an action or event which was past before some other past action or event mentioned in the sentence and to which it refers; as, "I had written the letter before he came." Our perfect terre
- 157. a. The Future Perfect denotes that a future action or event will be completed at or before another future action or event; as, "I shall have written the letter before John arrives."
- b. The subjoined mode, in which a Latin verb is usually considered either in an *Imperfect* or in a *Perfect* state, will assist the pupil in instituting a comparison between the two languages in this respect:—

Imperfect State.

Present, Voco, I call, am calling, do call.

Imperfect, Vocabam, I was calling.

Future, Vocabo, I shall call.

Perfect, Vocavèram, I had called.

Fut. Perfect, Vocavèra, I shall have called.

Numbers and Persons.

LESSON 27.—Exercise 27.—Page 18.

158. a. Verbs have two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural, agreeing with a noun or pronoun; as, he lores, they love.

b. In each number there are three persons; as,

Singular.

First Person.

I love,
Second Person.

Thou lovest,
Third Person.

He, she, or it loves.

Plural.

We love,
You or ye love,
They love.

- c. The first person refers to the speaker himself (I, plur, ue); the second to the person spoten to (thou, plur, you or ye); the third to the person or thing spoken of (he, she, it, plur, they).—The first person plural of Pronouns is generally used in public discourses by persons in authority, and also by authors and editors of periodicals, rather than the first person singular, perhaps, because this mode appears less egotistical; as, "We think," rather than "I think."
- 159. In English, there are distinct forms for only two of the persons, the second and third singular. In the plural, the same form of ending is preserved through all the persons.
- 100. The Second Person Singular is formed from the first by adding st when the verb ends in e; as, love, lovest; see, seest; and in other instances, generally by adding est; as, hear, hearest; call, callest.
- a. F after a commant is changed into feet for the record person; as, try, triest. But y following a vowel is not changed; as, delay, delayers.
- b. Past Tenses (not being monosyllables), ending in ed, form the second person singular in eds; as, loved, loveds; called, calleds.
- c. Monosyllables ending with a single consonant immediately after a single rowel, and words accented on the last syllable, have the final consonant doubled, before est, eth, ed, ing, but not before z; as, put, put-test; commit', commit'-test; demur'-rest, demur'-rest, demur'-rest. (See 49.)
- 161. In English, the Second Person Plural is generally used instead of the second person singular in addressing a single person; thus, "You read," instead of "Thou readest."
- a. The word thou is employed only in the following instances:—lst. When addresing the Dely, 2ndly. In poetry, to add dignity to the style. 3rdly. When speaking contemptuously of a person; or, in rulgar language, to express equality or great familiarity. 4thly. It is now employed frequently (but not, as formerly, always) by the Members of the Society of Friends, in addressing a single person.
- b. To avoid using thou, some of the "Friends" say thee, connecting it with the third singular verb; thus, "thee says," "thee does;" instead of "thou sayest," "thou doest." This is indeed a glaring perversion of grammatical propriety.
- c. Fe, plural, is principally confined to the colemn style and poetry, being excluded from polite discourse.
- 162. The Third Person Singular of the present tense is formed generally by adding s to the first person; as, I love, he loves; I read, he reads.
- a. I after a consonant is changed into ics for the third person; as, try, tries. But y after a vowel is not changed; as, delay, delays.—The third person singular of Past tenses has the same termination as the first; as, I began, he began; I admired, be admired.—The termination s does not cause any final consonant to be doubled. (See 160.c.)
- b. Verbs ending in a, ch soft, s, sh, x, s, or in o after a consonant, form the chird person singular in es; as, huzza, huzzaes; catch, catches; toss, tosses;

pnsh, pushes; wax, waxes; buzz, buzzes; go, goes. The termination th, in the third person singular, as in hath, marketh, &c., is not now used either in writing or in conversation, but is confined to the language of Scripture and Poetry.

c. Dare, past Durst, intran: to venture, and Need, intran. have now in common usage (though contrary to analogy and to former usage), the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. the same as the 1st; as, "Thou dare, ho dare not ride;" "Thou need, ho need not walk." But Dare, to challenge, tr. past Dared, and Need, tr. to want, have st in the 2nd and s in the 3rd pers.; as, "Thou darest, he dares him to the conflict." "Thou needest help." "He needs your guidance."

163. Examples of Personal Terminations.

•	Singular,		Plural.	_\.
l. I.	Thon lovest, triest, delayest, scannest, tollest, deferrest, tenchest, fre-est,	3. He, she, it loves, tries, delays, scans, tolls, defers, teaches, frees.	1. 2. 3. We, ye or yon, they love, through all the persetry, do. delay, do. scan, do. toll, do. defer, do. teach, do. free, do.	ons. Pres to
loved, tried, delayed, scanned, tolled, deferred, taught, fre-ed,	lovedsi, triedsi, delayedsi, scauncdsi, tolledsi, deferredsi, tanghtesi, fre-edst,	loved, tried, delayed, scanned, tolied, deferred, taught, fre-ed,	loved, through all the perso tried, do. delayed, do. scanned, do. toiled, do. deferred, do. tanght, do. freed, do.	Lo 200 June

Participles.

LESSON 28.—Exercise 28.—Page 18.

- 164. a. A Participle is so called from its supposed partaking of the functions of a verb, an adjective, and a noun; as, "The man is reading" (participle); "A reading man" (adjective); "The reading is correct" (noun).
- b. A Participle coincides with a verb in denoting time and action, but differs from it in not affirming anything; as, "Moring in haste;" "promoted in his situation;" here moving and promoted are assumed, or taken for granted.
- c. A participle differs from an adjective in implying time and action, while the adjective denotes neither. In the phrases "Moving in haste," "Healed with liquor," the words moving and healed are participles, because they convey the idea of time and action; but in the phrases, "A moving spectacle," "A healed imagination," the words moving and healed simply denote qualities, without any regard to time, and consequently are adjectives. When these participal forms are used as adjectives, they may have degrees of comparison; as, a moving, a move moving, a most moving speciacle.
- 165. In the Active Voice, there are two Participles; the Present or Imperfect, and the Perfect.
- 166. a. The Present or Imperfect Participle ends in ing, and expresses the continuance of an action, or action begun and not finished; as. moving, running, trying.

class)

dree M

Year.

- b. The Present or Imperfect Participle is indefinite as to time, denoting the continuance of some present, past, or future action, according to its connection with a present, past, or future verb; as, "I am (at present) writing;" "I was (some time past) writing;" "I shall be (at a future period) writing."
- c. When the verb ends in e after a consonant (but not in ce), the e must be dropped before ing; as, love, loving; flee, fleeing. Except swingeing, singeing, to distinguish them from swinging, singing. (See 48. c.)
- d. When the verb ends in ie, the ie is changed into y; as, lie, lying; die, dying; but dye, to staln, makes dying.
- e. Ing, added to monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, when these end with a single consonant after a single rowel, requires the final consonant to be doubled; as, scan, scanning; defer, deferring. (See 49.)
 - 167. a. The Participle in ing has generally an active signification, but sometimes a passive one; thus,
 - b. If the agent connected with the participle is a sentient being or capable of action, then the Participle in ing is active; as, "I am reading;" "John is writing;" "The men are building the boute;" "They are printing the book;" "They are burning the sticks." In these instances the participles are active, and govern some nouns, either expressed or understood, in the objective case.
 - c. But when the noun connected with ing is either inanimate, or cannot, from its very nature, be considered as ading of itself, then, the participle in ing is regarded as partice; as, "The work is or was printing;" "The house is or was building." In this cause, the participle has obtained the sanction of long established range; nor can any ambiguity arise from its continued application.
 - d. The classical student is well aware that the usual mode of rendering into Latin the preceding expressions, would be by employing the passive verb in the following manner:

The house is building,
The house was building,
The house is build,
The house is built,

domus ædificabatur;
and not, domus ædificabatur.

and not, domus ædificabatur.

- e. To avoid, however, using the participle in ing in a passive sense, the employment of the present passive participle with being, to denote progress or incompleteness, either in the present or at some past time, has lately been extensively adopted by good writers; thus, "The house is being bullt," denotes progress at present. "The work was being printed," denotes incompleteness at some past time. So we may say, "The accounts are or were being settled;" "A tax is or was being levied;" "An army is or was being raised." (See 412, b.) "Is built," "Was built," denote completion; "Is being built," "Was being built," denote progress or incompleteness.
- 168. The Perfect Participle expresses the completion of an action; and ends, when regular, in ed; otherwise, generally in t or n, with having before it; as, "having printed;" "having taught or written."
- a. The Perfect Participles, both of transitive and intransitive verbs, are employed with the tenses of hare in forming some of the compound tenses of the active voice; as, "I have called," "I have written," "I had run."
- b. The Perfect Active Participle always requires having before it; as, "Having loved;" "having written." But, when being is understood, the same word becomes the Present Passive Participle; as, "Loved or being loved;" "Written or leing veritten."
 - c. "I have written a letter," implies that I myself have completed the act of writing; but "I have a letter written," implies that the letter may have been written by some one else.
 - d. The affix ed will have the same influence in doubling the final consonant, as ing has; as, scan, scanned; defer, deferred. (See 49, Rule 4.)

Passive Participles.

- 169. In the Passice Voice, there are also two Participles, Present and Perfect.
- 170. a. The Present Passive Participle, expressed either with or without being prefixed to the participle, denotes that an object is at present affected by some action; as, "Loved or Being loved;" "Honoured or Being honoured."
- b. The abridged form of the present passive participle (without leing) is frequently used instead of the full form; thus, "Lord by his parents;" "honoured by his friends;" "written with care;" that is, Being loved; being honoured; being written. The Perfect Active Puriciple, on the contrary, always requires having to be prefixed to distinguish it from the Present Passive; and, if derived from a transitive verb, has an objective case after it; as, "Having loved his parents;" "Having uritten the letter."
- 171. The Perfect Passive denotes the completion of an action before another action mentioned; as, "The business having been completed, the council was dismissed."

Participial Nouns.

- 172. Participial Nouns have the same form as Participles, but express a substantive meaning. Those ending in ing may have articles before, and adjectives conjoined with them; as, "The singing was good;" "An excellent understanding."
- 173. Participial Nouns may be either—1, the Subject, or 2, the Object of a verb; or, of adjectives and prepositions; as, 1. "The reading was good." 2. "I love reading;" "he is fond of reading;" "he is desirous of being heard." (See 410, 411.)
- 174. Participial Nouns will govern the Possessive Case; and, if ending in ing, and derived from transitive verbs, will govern an Objective also; as, "William's admonishing him produced a change;" "John's being warned was the cause of his safety."
- 175. Participial Nouns are derived—1, from the Present in ing; as, "Reading;"—2, from the Perfect Active; as, "Having read;"—3, from the Present Passive being; as, "Being read;"—4, from the Perfect Passive, having been read."

The following examples will illustrate the import of Participial Nouns in their various applications:—

a. "John's admonishing him, preserved his reputation;" here, admonishing is a Participial Noun derived from a transitive verb. The phrase, in its strictly participial character, would be expressed thus: "John, by admonishing him, preserved," &c., or "John, by having admonished him, preserved," &c.

b. "The enemy's having secured the pass prevented their entrance:" having secured is a participal noun from the perfect active. The phrase, rendered participally, would be thus: "The enemy, by having secured the pass, prevented," &c.

c. "The chancellor's being attached, or having been attached to the king, secured his crown;" here, being attached and having been attached are participlal nouns. The phrases, rendered participitally, would be, "The chancellor, by being attached, or by haring teen attached to the king, secured," &c.

Conjugation.

LESSON 29.—Exercise 29.—Page 19.

176. The Conjugation of a verb is the regular combination of its several voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

177. The Conjugation of a Transitive or Intransitive verb, styled the Active Voice, is formed by means of the verb to have; and that of a Passive verb, styled the Passive Voice, by means of the verb to be, prefixed to the Perfect Participle.

Transitive verbs may become passive, but intransitive verbs cannot.

178. The Conjugations will be given, 1st, in their Simple Form; and, 2nd, in their Compound and Complete Form.

a. The Simple Tenses, when formed by Inflection only, consist of the Present and Past tenses; and Two participles, the Present and Past.

b. The Compound Tenses are all those that are formed by means of the verbs to be and have, prefixed to the past participle of any verb.

c. In confugating, the proper form of the verb belonging to the second person singular will be given; but the use of thou is, in good conversation, restricted to the instances mentioned in 161. a.

d. It is confined to poetry and the solemn style; you, in good conversation, is used instead of it.

e. The third person singular of verbs will agree either with he, she, it, or any noun of the third person; for the take of brevity, however, only one nominative whi be prefixed to the verb in conjugation.

f. The third person singular of each verb has two forms; the common ending in s, the solemn ending in th. The common form only will, except in particular cases, be given.

179. Conjugation of Verbs in the Simple Inflectional Tenses:

1. To HAVE.

Indicative Mood .- Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I have. Plur. 1. We have. 2. Thou hast. 2. You have.

3. He has or hath.
3. They have.

Past Tenza

Sing. 1. I had. Plur. 1. We had. 2. Thou hadet. 2. You had.

3. He had. 3. They had.

2. To BE.

Indicative Mood .- Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I am. 2. Thou art. 3. He is. Plur. 1. We are. 2. You are. 3. They are.

Past Tense.

Eing. 1. I was. Plur. 1. We were. 2. Thou wast. 2. You were. 3. He was.
3. They were.

Participles,-Present, being.

Perfect, having been.

3. To Do.

Indicative Mood .- Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I do. Plur. 1. We do. 2. Thou doest.*

3. He does or doeth.

do. 2. You do

3. They do.

(* Doest, when a principal; Dost, when an auxillary verb.) (See 188.)

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I did. Plur. 1. We did. 2. Thou didst. 2. You did. 3. He did. 3. They did.

Participles,-Present, doing. Perfect, having done.

4. To Will. (Used as a Principal Verb.) (Regular.)

Indicative Mood .- Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I will. Hur. 1. We will. Thou willest.
 You will.

3. He wills. 8. They will.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I willed. Plur. 1. We willed.

Thou willedst.
 You willed.

3. He willed.
3. They willed.

Participles .- Present, willing. Perfect, having willed.

5. To CALL. (Regular.)

Indicative Mood .- Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I call. Plur. 1. We call. 2. Thou callest.

3. He calls.

r. 1. We call. 2. You call.

3. They call.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I called. Plur. 1. We called.

2. Thou calledst.
2. You called.

3. He called.
3. They called.

Participles,--Present, calling. Perfect, having called,

G. To TEACH. (Irregular.)

Indicative Mood .- Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I teach. Plur. 1. We teach. Thou teachest.
 You teach.

3. He teaches.
3. They teach.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I taught. Plur. 1. We taught. Thou taughtest.
 You taught.

3. He taught.
3. They taught.

Participles,-Present, teaching. Perfect, having taught.

3

180. Conjugation of TO HAVE in its complete Form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SDIPLE TEXSES. (See 151.)

1. Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I have.
2. Thou hast,—(see 161)
3. He has or hath.

Plur. 1. We have, 2. You or ye have, 3. They have.

2. Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I had, 2. Thou hadst, 3. He had.

Plur. 1. We had, 2. You had, 3. They had.

3. Future Tense.

Simple Foretelling in all the Persons. Sing. 1. I shall have, 2. Thou wilt have, 3. He will have.

Plur. 1. We shall have, 2. You will have, 3. They will have.

1 Pers. Determination or Promise, 2 and 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

Sing. 1, I will have, 2. Thou shalt have, 3. He shall have.

Plur. 1. We will have, 2. You shall have, 3. They shall have.

COMPOUND TENSES. (See 151.)

4. Present Perfect.

Sing. 1. I have had.

2. Thou hast had, He has had.

Plur. 1. We have had,
2. You have had,
3. They have had.

5. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I had had,

2. Thou hadst had,

3. He had had.

Plur. 1. We had had, 2. You had had, 3. They had had.

6. Future Perfect Tense.

Future completed.

S. 1. I shall have had, 2. Thou wilt have had, 3. He will have had.

P. 1. We shall have had, 2. You will have had, 3. They will have had.

1 Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

S. 1. I will have had, 2. Thou shalt have had, 3. He shall have had.

P.1. We will have had, 2. You shall have had, 3. They shall have had.

IMPERATIVE MOOD. (See 181. a.)

Sing. 2. Have, or have thou, or do thou | Plur. 2. Have, or have you, or do you

have.

POTENTIAL MOOD. (See 147. b and 196.)

Present Tense,—may, can, must.

Sing. 1. I may, can, must have, 2. Thou mayst, canst, or must

have, 3. He may, can, or must have.

Plur. 1. We may, can, or must have,
2. You may, can, or must have,
3. They may, can, or must have.

Past Tense,—might, could, &c.

Sing. 1. I might, could, would, or should have,

2. Thou mightst, couldst, &c. have.

3. He might, could, &c. have.

Plur. 1. We might, could, &c. have, 2. You might, could, &c. have,

3. They might, could, &c. have.

3. Present Perfect, - may have (but not can).

Sing. 1. I may or must have had, 2. Thou mayst, &c. have had, 3. He may, &c. have had.

Plur. 1. We may, &c. have had, 2. You may, &c. have had, 3. They may, &c. have had.

4. Past Perfect Tense,-might, &c. have.

Sing. 1. I might, could, would, or should have bad,

2. Thon mightst, &c. have had,

3. He might, &c. have had.

Plur. 1. We might, &c. have had, 2. You might, &c. have had,

3. They might, &c. have had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. Present Tense.

Sing. 1. If I have, 2. If Thou hast,—(see 181. b) 3. If He has.

Mur. 1. If We have,

2. If You have,

3. H They have. .

2. Past Tense.

Sing. I. If I had, 2. If Thon hadst,—(see 181. b)

5. If He had.

Plur. 1. If We had. 2. If You had.

3. If They had.

3. Future Tense.

Sing. 1. If I have, 2. If Thon have,—(see 181. c)

3. If He hare.

Itur. 1. If We have,
2. If You have,
3. If They have.
less or I. If I should have, &c.
common. 2. If Thou shouldst have.

4. Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I have had, 2. If Thou hast had, 3. If He has had,

Plur. 1. If We have had, 2. If You have had,

3. If They have had.

5. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I had had. 2. If Thou hadst had

3. If He had had.

Plur. 1. If We had had, 2. If You had had,

3. If They had had,

6. Future Perfect. Sing. 1. If I should have had.

2. If Thou shouldst have had, 3. If He should have had.

Plur. 1. If We should have had,

2. If You should have had, 3. If They should have lind.

In the Future Perfect, the signs must always be expressed to prevent am-. biguity.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To have.

Perfect. To have had

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Having.

Perfect. Having had.

181. Observations.—a. The Imperative Mood is confined to the Second Person. In the phrases. "Let me have," "let him, us, them, have," the verb let is a principal and transitive verb, in the Imperative Mood, governing the pronouns me, him, &c. in the objective care, and the subsequent verb have in the Infinitive Mood, but without the sign to expressed; thus, "Let (thou) me (to) have."

h. The Subjunctive Present and Past Tenses denote uncertainty about something which may exist now, or might have existed some time ago, but of which I am ignorant; thus, "If he has the book, he will lend it;" "If he had the book, he would lend it;" "If he has had the book, he has lost it;" "If he had had the book, he would have lent it."

c. The Subjunctive Future implies a Future contingency; as, "If he take the charge, the uffair will succeed," "If he be present, he will vote." The Future may be expressed either, 1st, without the auxiliaries, which is the more common mode: na, "If he write;" or, 2nd, with the auxiliaries. When the auxiliaries are employed, they must be ruried in the second person; as, " If thou shouldst or wouldst write." The Fature Perfect Subjunctive always requires the auxiliaries; as, "If thou shouldst have had," Should is the auxiliary most generally employed in the Future Subjunctive.

d. Have in the sense of take, procure, hold, regard, will admit the Progressive and Instite Forms; thus, 1. Progressive, "He is having,—was having,—has been karing- n ride,-his likeness taken.

2. Passire; "He is had in honour;" "He will be had in remembrance."

182.—TO BE.

LESSON 30.-Exercise 30.-Page 19.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1. Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I am, 2. Thou art, 3. He is.

Plur. 1. We are, 2. You are, 3. They are.

2. Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I was, 2. Thou wast, 3. He was.

Plur. 1. We were, 2. You were, 3. They were.

3. Future Tense.

Simple Forelelling.

Eing. 1. I shall be,

2. Thou wilt be, 3. He will be.

' Plur. 1. We shall be, 2. You will be,

3. They will be.

1 Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

Sing. 1. I will be,

2. Thou shalt be,

3. He shall be.

Plur. 1. We will be, 2. You shall be, 3. They shall be.

4. Present Perfect Tente.

Sing. 1. I have been,

2. Thou hast been,

3. Ho has or hath been.

Plur. 1. We have been, 2. You have been,

3. They have been.

5. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I had been,

2. Thou hadst been,

3. He had been.

Plur. 1. We had been, 2. You had been,

3. They had been.

G. Fulure Perfect Tensc.

Puture Completion.

Sing. 1. I shall have been, 2. Thou wilt have been,

3. He will have been.

Mur. 1. We shall have been, 2. You will have been, 3. They will have been.

I Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

Sing. 1. I will have been,
2. Thou shalt have been,
3. He shall have been.

Plur. 1. We will have been, 2. You shall have been,

3. They shall have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. Be, or be thou, or do thou be. Plur. 2. Be, or be you or ye, or do you be.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

1. Present Tense. Sing. 1. I may, can, or must be,

2. Thou mayst, caust, or must be,

3. He may, can, or must be.

Plur. 1. We may, can, or must be, 2. You may, can, or must be,

3. They may, can, or must be.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I might, could, would, or should be,

Thou mightst, &c. be,
 He might, &c. be,

Plur. 1. We might, &c. be,

2. You might, &c. be. 8. They might, &c. be. 3. Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I may or must have been. 2. Thou mayst, &c. have been,

8. He may, &c. have been.

Plur. 1. We may, &c. have been, 2. You may, &c. have been, 3. They may, &c. have been.

4. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I might, could, would, or

should have been,

2. Thou mightet, &c. have been, 3. He might, &c. have been.

Flur. 1. We might, &c. have been, 2. You might, &c. have been, 3. They might, &c. have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. Present Tense. (See 148. b.)

Sing. 1. If I am, 2. If Theu art, 3. If He is.

Plur. 1. If We are, 2. If You are, 3. If They are.

2. Past Tense. (See 148. b.)

Sing. 1. If I was, 2. If Thou wast,

3. If He was.

Plur. 1. If We were, 2. If You were, 3. If They were.

3. Future Tense. (See 148, b.)

Sing. 1. If I be,

2. If Thon be.

If He be.

Plur. 1. If We be, 2. If You be,

3. If They be,

or { 1. If I should be, 2. If Thou shouldst be, &c.

4. Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I have been, 2. If Then hast been, 3. If He has been.

Plur. 1. If We have been,

2. If You have been.

3. If They have been.

b. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I had been, 2. If Thou hadst been,

3. If He had been.

Plur. 1. If We had been, 2. If You had been, 3. If They had been,

G. Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I should have been, 2. If Thou shouldst have been,

3. If He should have been.

Plur. 1. If Wo should have been,

2. If You should have been, 3. If They should have been.

7. Suppositional Tense. (See 148. b.)

Sing. 1. If I were, 2. If Thou wert,

3. If He were.

Plur. 1. If We were, 2. If You were, 3. If They were.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be.

Perfect. To have been.

PARTIOIPLES.

Present. Being.

Perfect, Having beetle

183. Observations.—a. Be was formerly used in the Indicative Present through all the persons.

b. The Subjunctive Simple Future is generally conjugated without the signs; but the Future Perfect always requires them.

c. The Suppositional Tense implies something that does not at present exist; ns, "Were he conscientious, he would regard his oath," implies that he is not conscientious. "Were he rich, he would be generous," implies that he is not rich.

LESSON 31.—Exercise 31.—Page 19.

184.-Conjugation of Regular Verbs.

ACTIVE VOICE.-TO CALL.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1. Present Tense,_am, do.

Simp. S. I call, thou callest, he calls, P. We call, you call, they call.

Proy. S. I am, thou art, he is calling.
P. We are, you are, they are calling.

Emp. S. I do, thou dost, he does_call. P. We do, you do, they do_call.

2. Past Tense was, did.

Simp. S. I called, thou calledst, he called. P. We called, you called, they called.

Prog. S. I was, thou wast, he was calling.

P. We were, you were, they were calling.

Emp. S. I did, thou didst, he did_call.
P. We did, you did, they did_call.

3. Future Tense_shall, will. Simple Foretelling.

Simp. S. I shall, thou wilt, he will call. P. We shall, you will, they will call.

Prog. S. I shall, thou wilt, he will-be calling.

P. We shall, you will, they will-be calling.

No Emphatic Future.

1 Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

Simp. S. I will, thou shalt, he shall—call. P. We will, you shall, they shall—call.

Prog. S. I will, thou shalt, he shall—be calling.
P. We will, you shall, they shall—be

calling.

4. Present Perfect, Lave.

Sing. 1. I have called.
2. Thou hast called,
3. He has called.

Plur. 1. We have called, 2. You have called, 3. They have called.

Progressive, I have been calling, &c.

5. Past Perfect, had.

Sing. 1. I had called,

. Thou hadet called. 3. He had called.

Plar. 1. We had called, 2. You had called, 3. They had called.

Progressive, I had been calling, &c.

6. Future Perfect, shall or will have. Future Completion.

Simp. S. I shall, thou wilt, he will-have

have called. P. We shall.

Prop. S. I shall, thou wilt, he will—have been calling.
P. Weshall, you will, they will—have been calling.

No Emphatic.

1 Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and. 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

Simp. S. I will, thou shalt, he shall—have called.

P. We will, you shall, they shall-have called.

Prog. S. I will, thou shalt, he shall—have been calling.
P. We will, you shall, they shall—have been calling.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing. 2. Call, or call thou, or do call.

Plar. 2. Call, or call you, or do call

POTENTIAL MOOD.

1. Present Tense, may, can, must.

Sing. 1. I may, can, or must call, 2. Thou mayst, canst, &c. call, 3. He may, can, or must call.

Plur. 1. We may, cau, or must call,

2. You may, can, or must call. 3. They may, can, or must call.

Progressive, I may, &c. be calling.

2. Past Tense, might, could, &c.

Sing. 1. I might or should call, 2. Thou mightet, ac, call,

3. He might, &c. call.

Plar. 1. We might, &c. call. Progressire, I might, &c. be calling.

3. Present Perfect, may or must have. Sing. 1. I may or must have called, 2. Thou mayst, &c. have called, 3. He may, &c. have called,

Plur. 1. We may, &c. have called

2. You may, &c. have called. 3. They may, &c. have called,

Progressive, I may, &c. have been calling.

4. Past Perfect, might, be, have.

Sing. 1. I might, could, &c. have called.
2. Thou mightst, &c. have called.
3. He might, &c. have called.

Plur. 1. We might, &c. have called. Progressive, I might, &c. have been calling.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. Fresent Tense.

Sing. 1. If I call,

2. If Thou callest,-(see 181. b) 3. If He calls.

Plur. 1. If We call, 2. If You call, 3. If They call.

Proy. If I am calling, &c.

2. Past Tense.

Sing. 1. If I called, 2. If Thou calledst,

3. If He called,

Plur. 1. If We called, 2. If You called, 3. If They called.

Prog. If I was calling, &c.

3. Future Tense.

Sing. 1. If I call,

2. If Thou call,

S. If He call.

Plur. 1. If We call.
2. If You call.
3. If They call.

or 1. If I should call,

2. If Thon shouldst call, &c.

I'rog. If I should be calling, &c.

4. Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I have called,

2. If Thou hast called,

3. If He has called.

Plur. 1. If We have called, 2. If You have called,

3. If They have called.

Prog. If I have been calling, &c.

5. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I had called,

2. If Thou hadst called,

3. If He had called.

Plur. 1. If We had called. 2. If You had called,

3. If They had called.

Prog. If I had been calling.

6. Fulure Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I should have called,

2. If Thou shouldst have called, 3. If He should have called.

Plur. 1. If We should have called,

2. If You should have called, 3. If They should have called.

Prog. If I should have been calling, &c.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To call.

Perfed. To have called.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Calling.

Perfect. Having called.

185. Observations .- a. The Present Indicative has three forms: first, the Simple, expressing a habit or custom; as, I call; second, the Progressire, expressing the continuation of an action; as, I am calling; third, the Emphatic; as, I do call. The Past Tense also has three forms: the other tenses have only two forms. The Past Progressive corresponds to the Imperfect of the Latin, Greek, and French. (See 190.) Doth marks the solemn form of the emphatic; does, the ordinary form.

b. Verbs denoting mental affection do not admit the progressive form. We cannot, therefore, with propriety, say, I am loring, am respecting, dutiking, haling, fearing, knowing them; but I love, respect, dullke, hate, fear, know them.

c. In the Subjunctive Simple Future, the signs are more commonly omitted; but it would be quite as correct to employ them. In the Future Perfed, the signs must always be employed, that the Tense may be distinguished from the Perfect.

d. Illustrations of 49, Rule 4:-

 Final Consonants preserved—Single:— Deem-est, deem-ing; Demean-ing, demean-ed; El'it-ing, ed'it-ed.

2. Final Consonant-Doubled :-

Bet-ting, bet-ted: Befit-ting, befit-ted; Refer-ring, refer-red,

3. The Consonant, single or double, according to the Accent;-Refer'-red, ref'er-ence; Defer'-ring, def'er-ence; Bellf-ling, ben'eff-ling.

186. PASSIVE VOICE.—TO BE CALLED.

LESSON 32.—Exercise 32.—Page 20.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

1. Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I am called,

Thou art called. 3. He is called.

Plur. 1. We are called.
2. You are called.

3. They are called.

Prog. I am, thou art, he is-being called.

2. Part Tense.

Sing. 1. I was called, 2. Thou wast called,

3. He was called.

Plur. 1. We were called, 2. You were called,

3. They were called.

Progress. I was, then wast, he wasbeing called.

3. Future Tense.

Simple Futurity.

Sing. I shall, thou wilt, he will—be called.

Mur. We shall, you will, they will-be called.

1 Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and 3 Pers. Command or Promise.

Sing. I will, thou shalt, he shall-be called.

Mur. We will, you shall, they shall—be called.

Progressive, very rare.

Sing. 1. I had been called,

Sing. 1. I have been called,

Plur. 1. We have been called, 2. You have been called.

He had been called. Piur. 1. We had been called,2. You had been called,3. They had been called.

No Progressive Form.

4. Present Perfect Tense.

2. Thou hast been called,

3. They have been called.

No Progressive Form.

5. Past Perfect Tense.

2. Thou hadst been called.

3. He has been called.

0. Future Perfect Tense.

Simple Futurity, completed. Sing. I shall, thou wilt, he will-have

been called. Piur. We shall, you will, they will-

have been called. 1 Per. Determination or Promise, 2 and

3 Pers. Command or Promise. Sing. I will, then shalt, he shall-have been called.

Piur. We will, you shall, they shall—have been called.

No Progressite.

IMPERATIVE MOOD. Sing. 2. Be (thou) called, or do thou be | Piur. 2. Be (you) called, or do you be called. called.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

1. Present Tense.

Sing. 1. I may, can, or must be called, 2. Thon mayst, canst, &c. be called,

3. He may, can, or must be called.

Plar. 1. We may, can, or must be

called. 2. You may, can, or must be colled,

3. They may, can, or must be called.

2. Past Tense.

Sing. 1. I might, could, &c. be called, 2. Thon mightet, couldst, &c. be

called, 3. He might could, &c. be called.

Plur. 1. We might, could, &c. be called, 2. You might, could, &c. be called,

3. They might, could, &c. be called.

3. Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I may, &c. have been called, 2. Thou mayst, &c. have been

called, 3. He may, &c. have been called.

Plur. 1. We may, &c. have been called, 2. You may, &c. have been

called, 3. They may, &c. have been called.

4. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. I might, &c. have been called, 2. Thou mightst, &c. have been

called,

3. He might, &c. have been called.

Plur. 1. We might, &c. have been called,

2. You might, &c. have been called.

3. They might, &c. have been called.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

1. Present Tense.

Sing. 1. If I am called,

2. If Thou art called, - (see 145) 3. If He is called.

Plur. 1. If We are called, 2. If You are called,

3. If They are called,

2. Past Tense.

Sing. 1. If I was called,

2. If Thou wast called,—(see 148)

3. If He was called.

Plur. 1. If We were called,

2. If You were called.

3. If They were called.

3. Future Tense.

Sing. 1. If I be called,

2. If Thou be called, -(see 148)

3. If He be called.

Plur. 1. If We be called.

2. If You be called,

3. If They be called.

or 1. If I should be called. 2. If Thou shouldst be called.

7. Suppositional Tense. (See 148.)

4. Present Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I have been called, 2. If Thou hast been called, 3. If He has been called.

Plur. 1. If We have been called, 2. If You have been called,

3. If They have been called.

5. Past Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I had been called, 2. If Thou hadst been called, 3. If He had been called.

Plur. 1. If We had been called.

2. If You had been called.

3. If They had been called.

.G. Future Perfect Tense.

Sing. 1. If I should have been called, 2. If Thou shouldst have been

called,

3. If He should have been called.

Plur. 1. If We should have been called,

2. If You should have been called,

3. If They should have been called.

Sing. 1. If I were called,
2. If Thou wert called,
3. If He were called.

Plur. 1. If We were called, 2. If You were called,

3. If They were called.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be called.

Perfed. To have been called.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Called, or being called.

Perfect. Having been called.

Observations .- 1. The Present Passive Participle is frequently abridged by omitting the sign being; thus, "called," for "being called," "loved," for "being fored."

2. Several Passive Forms of Verbs denoting Progression or Incompleteness have recently been introduced; as, Present, "The rents are being collected;" "The sheep are being shorn." The simple Passive Forms of these verbs, are collected, are shorn, would denote completeness and not progress. Pust, "The tax was being levied;" "An army was being raised," denote incompleteness at a past time.

187. Conjugation of Auxiliary Verbs.

Present Tense.

Singular.					Piural.				•				
1. I 2. Thon 3. He	dost.	ehalt,	wilt,		g can. canst. can.	-	1. Wo 2. You 3. They	đ٥,	shall,	will,	may,	can.	

Par. Tense.

Singular.

. 1	2	3	4	5
1. I did,			might,	
3. He did,	should,	would,	might,	could.

Plural.

1. We did,	should,	would,	might,	conid
2. You did,	should,	would,	might,	conid
3. They did,	should.	would.	might.	could

Must is used only in the Present Tense, and has no inflexious whatever.

168. Observations.—a. Do, when an auxiliary, forms the 2nd person sing. in dost, but when it is a principal, in dost; in the 3rd singular, does and doth, when auxiliary;—and does and doth, when principal.

b. When will is not auxiliary it is conjugated regularly as in p. 54, No. 179.

- c. The second Person singular of Auxiliaries is formed by adding st to the first person; as, could, couldst. But may, might, make mayst, mightst, with two rarer forms, mayest, mightest. Ought makes oughtest. The third Person singular ends the same as the First.
- d. Dare, Past dared, to challenge, brave, and Need, when Transitive, form the 2nd pers. sing. of the Present in ed; and the 3rd in *; as, "Thou needed help;" "He dare him to the contest." But Dare, Past Dured, int. to venture, and Need, int. have generally the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. the same as the first; as, "Thou dare not ride;" "He need not go." (See 162. c.)

189. Interrogative Conjugation.

a. In conjugating a verb interrogatively, do and its tenses, are employed to denote action; and am and its tenses, to denote continuance; thus,

Present Tense.

Sing. Do I call?
Dost Thou call?
Does He call?

Plur. Do We call?
Do You call?
Do They call?

Present Tense.

Sing. Am I calling?
Art Thou calling?
Is He calling?

Plur. Are We calling?
Are You calling?
Are They calling?

b. In Interrogative Sentences, the Subject is placed between the auxiliary and the verb, and the Auxiliary first; as, "Did he write?" "Shall I write?" "Must rego?"—But Interrogative Pronouns, whether single, or connected with nouns, introduce the sentence; as, "Who wrote that work?" "What man would assert that?"

REMARKS ON THE TENSES.

LESSON 33.—Exercise 33.—Page 20.

Indicative Mood.—190 to 195.

1. Present Tense.

- 190. The Present Tense speaks of what is doing or going on in present time. It has three forms; the simple; as, I call:—the progressive; as, I am calling; and the emphatic; as, I do call
- a. The first or Sairle form of the present tense is used to express, 1. General tradia; as, "Vice produces misery;" 2. A character, quality, or attribute, at present existing; as, "He is an able man;" 3. Habits, or repeated actions, and also the simple existence of a fact; as, "He takes snuff;" "He tammers;" "He goes into the country every summer;" "I teach." In this sense, it is frequently applied to the assertions or sentiments of authors whose works are still extant; as, "Esneca reasons and moralizes well."
- 4. In animated historical narrations, it is sometimes used for the past; as, "He enters the territory of the peaceable inhabitants, he fights and conquers."
- 5. When preceded by such words as when, before, as soon as, till, after, this form expresses the relative time of a future action; as, "When he comes, he will be welcome." Here, we have two inture actions, "when he comes"—and "will be welcome," one of which must be antecedent to the other, and would, if expressed in Latin or in most other languages, require a suitable tense to mark this priority of time; as, "When he shall have come."
- b. The second or PROGRESSIVE form (in ing) denotes that the action is now going on; as, "I am leaching." (See 163, notes 1, 2, 3, 4.)
- c. The third or EMPHATIC form (with do) is used to assert a thing with peculiar energy, or to remove some doubt on the part of the person addressed; as, "I do teach."

Do is likewise employed with a negative, and in asking questions; as, "I do not teach;" "Do you teach?"

2. Past Tenez.

- 191. The Past Tense represents an action or event, either 1, as finished at some time past, or 2, as begun and still going on at a past time. The Past, like the Present, has three forms 1st, the simple: as, I called: 2nd, the progressive: as, I was calling: and 3rd, the emphatic: as, I did call.
- a. The Past Tense excludes all idea of the present instant. It supposes an interval to have clapsed between the time of the action and the time of speaking of it. The action is thus considered as leaving nothing behind to which the mind considers to have any relation to the present; as, "Demosthemes was a celebrated orator;" "I lodged three days in the Strand." In such expressions as the following: "They came home early this morning;" "He was with them at three of clock this afternoon;" a reference is made to such a division of the day as is past before the time of our speaking.
- b. The Progressive form of this tense denotes that an action was unfinished at a certain time past; as. "I was writing when he came." This form corresponds to the Imperfect of the Latin, Greek, and French.
- e. Bid is the sign of the emphatic form of this tense; as, "I did write." Did is also employed in Questions and Answers, referring to past time; as, "Bid you see my father? No, I did not."

3. Future Tense.

192. a. The Future Tense simply intimates that an action or event will take place at some future period, without any regard to the precise time.—It has two forms, the simple: as, I shall or will call; and the progressive; as, I shall or will be calling.

b. In the sample form, "I shall call," shall in the first person foretells; but in the second and third persons, it promises, commands, or threatens.

c. In the phrase, "I will call," will, in the first person, intimates a promise or determination; in the second and third persons, it only fortells: as, "you will go," they will go." For the proper application of shall and will, see the rule —208 and the conjugation of Call, p. 59.

d. The Progressive Form intimates the indefinite continuance of a future action; as, "I shall be writing."

e. In Interrogations,—Shall in the let, 2nd, and 3rd persons refers to another's will; as, "Shall I go?" that is, Am I permitted to go? "Shall you go?" "Shall he go?"—Will in the 2nd and 3rd persons denotes intention in the Nominative; as, "Will you go?" "Will be go?"

f. In addition to the ordinary mode of denoting future time, the following are also employed; "I am going to write;" "I am about to write." These have been called the inexpire future, as they denote the commencement of an action, or an intention to commence an action without delay. As this modification of the verb is not, however, confined to one tense, but can be extended to all, its sense must be determined by the time implied by the verb to be; as, "I am (now) about to write;" "I was (then) about to write;" "I shall be (shortly) about to write."

g. There is also another mode of expression which, though it does not strictly or positively foreted an action, yet implies a necessity for performing an act, and clearly indicates that it will take place. For example, "I have to pay a sum of money to-morrow," that is, "I am under a preval necessity or obligation to do a fature act." The verb to be, followed by a verb in the Infinitive Mood, forms another idiomatic expression of future time; as, "John is to command a regiment;" "Entas went in search of the seat of an empire which was, one day, to command the world." The latter expression contains a fact which is past to the narrator, but future as to the event at the time specified.

4. The Present Perfect.

193. The Present Perfect Tense represents an action or event that has only just now or lately been completed. It has two forms, the common; as, "I have called;" and the progressive; as, "I have been calling."

- a. The Present Perfect tense expresses, 1. An action just finished; as, "I understand that a messenger has arrived from Paris;" that is, just now arrived.
- 2. An action done in a space of time, part of which is to elapse; as, "It has rained all the week;" "We have seen strange things this century."
- 3. An action perfected some time ago, but the consequences of which extend to the present time; as, "I have wasted my time, and now saffer for my folly." In the same manner, it is employed in mentioning the works of decased persons, if any of them remain; thus, "Cicero has written orations," because the orations are still in existence; but speaking of his poems, we cannot say, "Cicero has written poems," because they do not exist; we therefore properly say, "Cicero wrote poems."
- 4. When preceded by such words as when, before, as soon as, till, after, this tense expresses the completion of a relative future action; as, "When he has faithed his work, he shall be rowarded." The observations which were made in 190. a. v. are applicable to the present Note.

- b. The Progressive form of this tense implies that the action, whether completed or not, has been for some time in progress; as, "I have been writing these two hours."
- c. The difference between the Present Perfect and the Past tenses may be briefly summed up thus:—The Present Perfect tense has always a reference to present time; but the Past tense represents the action spoken of as having occurred in time considered prior to, and disjoined from the present. Thus, when I say, "I wrote yesterday;" "I have written to-day;" by the former expression, I exclude any reference to the present instant, but by the latter I include it. Again, if we speak in the afternoon of the same day, we can say, "He arrived this morning;" meaning the morning of this day; but speaking during the morning, and thus referring to the present time, we should say, "He has arrived this morning."

5. The Past Perfect.

194. The Past Perfect Tense expresses an action or event which was past before some other past action or event mentioned, and to which it refers; as, "He had diligently toiled, before he was rewarded."—It has two forms, the common; as, "I had called;" and the progressive; as, "I had been calling."

6. Future Perfect Tense.

195. The Fiture Perfect denotes that a future action or event will be completed at or before another future action or event. It has two forms, the common; as, "I shall or will have called;" and the progressive; as, "I shall or will have been calling."

- a. The signs shall and will can be retained through all tae persons, but with the same difference of meaning as stated for the Future Imperfect. (See 192. b. c.)
- b. Some grammarians, however, exclude will from the first person, and shall from the second and third persons. The following are the examples which they adduce in support of their opinion:—"I will have had previous notice whenever the event happens;" "Thou shall have served thy apprenticeship before the end of the year;" "He shall have completed his business when the messenger arrives." These phrases are, as they state, evidently incorrect, the auxiliaries being misapplied. But the same thing might have occurred in the first future as well as in the present instances; yet it would be improper to infer from this misapplication, that they ought to be excluded. That will may be employed in the first person, will appear from the following example:—"I will have completed my business before he arrives," denotes determination, and not mere fortelling; that is, "I am determined to have my business completed before his arrival." Again, should the truth of the affirmation, respecting the time of finishing the business, be called in question, will would then form the proper reply; thus, "You will not have finished your business before he arrives." "Yes, I will;" implying determination. "Will what?" "Will have finished my business."

Shall may also, with equal propriety, be used in the second and third persons. Thus, if I say, "He will have paid me his bill before July," I merely foretell what will be done; but when I say, "He shall have paid me his bill before July," I express my determination to compel him to pay it before July. As nearly the same idea, however, can be expressed by the first future, it is in general preferred in these instances; thus, instead of saying, "He shall have paid me his bill before July," we commonly say, "He shall pay me his bill," &c.

Potential Mood.

- 195. a. The Potential Present is indefinite with regard to time, implying . Present or Future Time according to the context; thus,
 - "I can write now or to-morrow," implies either present or future possibility.
 - "I may write," implies the liberty to write now or when I please.
 - "I must write," implies a present necessity of writing now or afterwards.
- b. Progression is in all the tenses denoted by using the participle in ing of the principal verb with the verb to be; as, "I may be writing."
- 197. Past Tense.—The Past Tense is also indefinite with regard to time, being either present, past, or future, according to the adverb employed, or the scope of the sentence; thus,
- "I might go," implies a conditional liberty to go now, or to-morrow if I pleased.
- "I could once do more," implies part ability: "I could if I pleased," refers to a present conditional possibility.
- "I would walk with you were I not engaged," implies present inclination to perform a conditional act.
 - "We should pay our debts," implies an obligation to pay now or afterwards.
- 193. The Present Perfect Tense implies the possibility or necessity of having completed an action at some time past; thus, "I may have written," that is, it is possible that I have written.—"I must have written," that is, there was a necessity, some time past, for my writing.
- Can is not used in this tenso; instead of it, either was able or could have is employed.
- 199. a. The Part Perfect denotes that the agent had—1, the Iderty; 2, the power; or 3, the inclination; or 4, was under an obligation to perform some act, but did not; as—1, "He might have, or 2, could have written, but he neglected." 3. "He would have written, if he had had the opportunity." 4. "He should have done his duty."
- b. Sometimes this tense denotes a past contingency; as, "Had there been no exertion, there would have been no success."

Subjunctive Mood.

The Tenses in the Subjunctive Mood have been fully exhibited under that Mood. (See 149. a. b.—395, 396, & 408.)

Infinitive Mood.

- 200. a. The Infinitive Mood is sometimes used absolutely as a noun ; as, " To rise early is conducive to health."
- b. At other times, one verb requires another which is the object of it, to be in the Infinitive Mood; as, "He studies to improve."
- 201. a. The Infinitive Present is employed to denote an action contemporary with or subsequent to the time implied by the governing verb; as, "He has consented to write;" "He appears to be."
- b. The Infinitive Perfect denotes an action interestent to the time implied by the governing verb; as, "He is said to have written;" "He appears to have been in better circumstances." (See 409.)

AN EXPLANATION OF THE AUXILIARY VERBS.

LESSON 35.—Exercise 35.—Page 21.

202. a. Auxiliary Verbs are those which are chiefly employed in forming the Moods and Tenses of other verbs. They were originally Principal Verbs; and, though some few of them still retain that character, along with that of auxiliaries, yet they have, in general, lost much of their original import, and become mere signs of mood and tense. Thus, thall signified originally one; but, "I shall write," does not now signify I one to write, but merely intimates a fature act.

b. The verbs which, in English, are considered as always auxiliary to others, are may, might, can, could, shall, should, and must; those which are sometimes auxiliaries, and sometimes principal verbs, are do, be, hare, will. The auxiliaries are followed by their Principal Verbs without the prefix to; as, "You may go," and not "to go." The Inflexions to denote number and person are varied in the Auxiliary and not in the principal verbs; as, "Thou mays(go;" "Thou, cannow rite."

Auxiliaries used in the Indicative Mood.

200. Do, and its past did, denote action; when used as auxiliaries they mark the emphatic form of the verb; as, "I do teach;" "I did teach." They are generally used in negative and interrogative sentences; as, "I do not fear;" "Did he bear?" They sometimes supply the place of mother verb, and make the repetition of it, in the same or in a subsequent sentence, unnecessary; as, "You attend not to your studies, as he does," that is, "as he altends." In the 2nd and 2rd Person singular dost and does are used when the verb is auxiliary, and doth in the solemn style; doen, doeth, and does, when the verb is principal.

201. Am, and its past was, denote progression; ns, "I am teaching;" "I was teaching."

295. Hare, and its past had, signify possession; when used as auxiliary verbs they mark the time of a verb; hare denoting that the action is just finished, as, "I have written the letter;" and had denoting that some interval had chapsel since it was completed; as, "I had finished the business before he arrived."

206. Shall (its past should is a conditional sign) properly signifies duly or obligation; as, "Thou shall love the Lord thy Gol." As the execution of a command or duty must be posterior to the command itself, so, shall, significant of present duty, came by an easy transition to be a note of future time; as, "Thou shall die." (See 192.)

207. Will (its part would is a conditional right) denotes rollion or intention, and is then regular (see 179-4); as, "I will that you should come;" "He wills not the death of a sinner."—Will is also a sign of futurity; as, "I will go."

Of the proper use of Shall and Will as Auxiliaries.

- 208. a. In Affirmative and Direct sentences, chall, in the first person, foretells: as, "I chall go;" in the second and third persons, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, "You shall be rewarded;" "Thou shall not steal;" "He shall die."
- b. Will, in the first person, intimates a promise or determination: as, "I will go;" in the second and third persons, it only foretells: as, "You will die;" "They will dine with us tomorrow."

- c. The appropriate application of shall and will may be thus shown :-
- Simple Futurity. (See the Conjugations, 180, 182, 184.) 2. thon will, 3. he will. We shall, you will, they will. 1. I shall.
- Determination in the 1st Pers.; Command in the 2nd and 3rd Pers. 1. I will, (Command). 2. thou shall, 3. he sholl. We will, you shall, they shall.
- d. When the determination of the nominative is intended to be expressed, will must be employed through all the persons; as, "I will go;" "You will not study;" "He will not be obedient," that is, "he is not willing to be obedient."
- 200. o. In Indirect sentences, that is, those which depend on other sentences, shall is used in all the persons to denote simple futurity; as, 'I tell you, I shall come;' "You say that you shall lose by the sale;" "He says ho shall not gain come; "Tou say that you didn't use by the Early, any thing,"—Will expresses determination or promise in all the persons; as, "I tell you, I will pay;" "He says he will pay."
- b. In Interrogative contences, shall and will have, in general, a meaning the very reverse of what they have in affirmative sentences. Shall, used interrogatively, in the first, second, and third persons, refers to another's will; thus, "Shall I go?" signifies "Will you permit mo to go?" So also, "Shall you go?" "Sholl be go?" But instead of "Shall you go?" it is more common to say, "Are you allowed to go?" or "Are you to go?" Will, need interrogatively, in the second and third persons, denotes rollition or determination in the nominative; as, "Will you go?" Will he go?" Will is seldom or never used interrogatively in the first person.
- c. In the Subjunctive Mood, shall in all persons denotes a future contingency; thus, in Matt. xviii. 15, "If thy brother shall trespass against thee," &c. Instead of shall, however, the modern practice prefers should; thus, "If he should trespass," &c .- Will in the 2nd and 3rd pers, of the Subjunctive implies either a present or a future contingent intention; as. "If you will study, you may improve;" that is, if you are willing now, or should be hereafter.

Auxiliaries used in the Potential Mood.

- 210. a. The Auxiliaries usually employed in the English Potential Mood are may, might, to denote possibility or liberty; can, could, to denote power or ability; should, duty; would, inclination; and must, necessity.
- b. When these words express permission or liberty, power or possibility, duty or inclination absolutely, then they must in translation be regarded as independent verbs in the Indicative Mood, governing the subsequent verb in the Infinitive; thus,
- "I can write," Scribere possum:
 "I may write," Mihi scribere licet; "I might have written," Mihi scribere licet;
 "I should write," Scribere debeo; "I should have written," Scribere debut,
 "I would write," Scribere volo;
 "I would write," Scribere volo;
 "I would have written," Scribere volut. (See Hiley's Lat. Gram. 318, 323.)
- 211. o. May and its past Might express, I. Liberty or permission; as, "He may if he pleases;" "He might if he pleased;"—2. Purpose when following that; es, "He studies that he may improve;" "He studies that he may improve; "He studies that he might improve; "—3. Possibility when applied to events; as, "It may rain;" "It might rain;"—4. Wish; as, "May he come;" "I wish him to come."
- b. May implies full liberty; Might, some possible restriction or contingency; as, "He may go;" "He might come."
- c. Might does not imply actual past time, as the past tense of a principal verb does, but some conddion, either present, past, or future, according to the context. (Sec 197.)
- d. In Interrogations, may and might ask permission; thus, "May I go?" " Might you go?"
- 212. Can (past could) expresses power or possibility; as, "He can write;" "He could write."

- 213. a. Should (past tense of shall) expresses—1. Duty, in all the persons; as, "I should write;" "You should study;"—2. Supposition; as, "If I should write;"—3. Future contingency; as, "You promised that we should go."
- b. Should is sometimes employed to express a diffidence in the speaker, or a slight assertion; as, "I should think it would be better to work;" that is, "I am inclined to think," &c.
- 214. Would implies—I. Volition; as, "I would write;" "You would go;"—2. Simple Foretelling in the second and third persons; as, "You would be delighted to hear his narrative;" "His power would be increased;"—3. Sometimes a Wish or Prayer; as, "Would to God;" that is, "I wish that God," &c.;—4. Sometimes a Habit; as, "He would frequently indulge in such meditations."
- 215. Must expresses present or future necessity; as, "Wo must speak the truth;" "We must die."—Must have expresses past time; as, "I must have written."

Ought, Let, Dare, Need.

216. Ought signifies duty or obligation, and is not an auxiliary but a principal verb, governing another verb in the infinitive mood; as, "You ought to obey your teachers."

Present duty is denoted by ought; past, by ought to have; as, "You ought to read:" "You ought to have read."

- 217. a. Let is sometimes, but improperly, considered an auxiliary; it is always a principal verb, implying permission, and governing the following verb in the Infinitive, but without the sign to; as, "Let me go;" that is, Let me to go, or permit me to go.
- b. Dare, Past Durel, int. to venture, and Need, int. denoting obligation, are a kind of auxiliaries, followed by a verb without the prefix to. When so used they do not frequently vary the 2nd and 3rd pers. singular. (See 162. c.)

Connection of Dependent Tenses.

218. In sentences dependent on others, when the auxiliaries are to be employed, may and can are used when the verb of the principal sentence is in the present, future, or perfect Indicative; and might, could, would, should, when the leading verb is in the past tense; as,

(Indic.) He says	that he might, could, should write. if he might, could go. when he comes, or has come. when he returns. if he has anything.
(Poten.) He would give	if he had, or should have anything. If he had had anything. If he were present. If he would try. If these should hold their peace.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

LESSONS 35 to 37.—Exercises 35 to 37.—Page 21.

- L. 35.—219. a. A Regular Verb is one that forms its Past Tense and Perfect Participlo by the addition of d or cd to the Present; as, Pres. love; Past, loved; Perf. Part. loved, or having loved. The great majority of English Verbs (about 4,000) follow this rule, hence called Regular.
- b. An Irregular verb is one that does not form its past tense and perfect participle by the addition of d or cd to the Present; as, Present, arise; Past, arose; Perfect Participle, arisen, or having arisen.
- c. As the great majority of modern English verbs form their Past Tense and Reriest Participle by the addition of d or cd to the Present, all verbs deviating from this rule are properly styled Irregulars. But, by some recent writers, the formation of the Past Tense and Perfect Participle effected by the change of the radical letters of the verb has been termed the trong conjugation, in contradistinction to the common term of Irregular; while the modern Regular mode formed by cd, has been called the ucal conjugation. Such an alternation from the received nomenclature has no advantage whatever to recommend its adoption. (See 187.)
- d. Several grammarians have divided the Irregulars into Classes according to the formation of the Preterite and Participle; but the Alphatelical arrangement here given, is decidedly preferable, as the various irregularities are by this means easily lodged in the memory, and a ready reference afforded whenever necessary.
- e. Ed after verbs ending in ch, ck, p, sh, x, and ss, though pronounced as t, must always be uritten in full; as, in preached, attacked, heaped, hushed, taxed, crossed. In many instances ed is sounded in full; as, in contented; but in others it is compressed; as, in honoured, counded as if written hon-our'd. An attempt was lately made to epell the preceding words as they are pronounced, but it very properly falled.
- f. The nature of our language, together with the accent and pronunciation of it, incline us to contract even all our Regular Verbs; thus, loved, turned, are commonly pronounced as monosyllables, the e remaining silent. The second person also, which was originally in three syllables, lovedes, turnedes, has become a dissyllable, lovedes, turnedes, has become a dissyllable, lovedes, turnedes. These contractions arise from the custom of throwing the accent, as much as possible, on the first syllable of a word; the other syllables, being consequently pronounced in a lower tone, and with more rapidity and indistinctuess, are often either wholly dropped or blended with one another.

Sometimes, also, the word which arises from a regular change does not sound easily or agreeably; or, sometimes, by the rapidity of our pronunciation, the rowels are either shortened or lost, and the consonants thus thrown together do not easily coalesce with one another; they are, therefore, changed into others of the same or of a kindred species. This occasions a further deviation from the regular form; thus, loreth, turneth, are contracted into lov'th, turn'th; and these, for easier pronunciation, become loves, turns.

Some verbs ending in *ll* admit the change of ed into t, dropping also one of the double letters; as, dwell, duelt; spill, spill. Some which end in t, n, or p, after a diphthong or double vowel, frequently admit a similar change, at the same time either shortening the diphthong or changing it into a single short vowel, see deal, dtall; mean, mtant; sleep, slipt; because d, after a short vowel, does not easily coalesce with the preceding consonant. Such as end in re, change re into f; as, bereave, bereft; because r, after a short vowel, will not readily coalesce with t.

q. Some verbs ending in d or t have the Present and Past tenses and Perfect Participle alike; as, shed, shed, shed; burst, burst, burst. These are contractions from sheded, bursted, on account of the disagreeable found of ed after d or t. Others have the Past tense and Perfect Participle the same, but varying from the Present by shortening the diphthong, or changing the d into t; as, Kad, Ied, Ied; Iend, Ient, Ient. Others, not ending in d or t are formed by contraction; as, have, had, for haved; make, made, for maked. Others have the Present and Past tenses and Perfect Participle all different; as, Arise, arose, arise,

h. The e of the Present tense is sometimes preserved in the Particip'e, for the sake of distinction; thus, we write, singeing, from singe, to distinguish it from singing, the participle of sing. Ie final, in the Present, is changed into y in the Participle; thus, dring from die; but dye, to tinge, makes dring. (See 48. e.)

—In the following list of Irregular Verbs the word having is understood before each Perfect Participle; as, having abode, having been, &c.

220. A List of the Irregular Verbs.

Perf. Part. Present. Past. Abide. abode. abode. Am, was, been. Arise. arisen. arose. awaked. Awāke. awoke, awaked. Bear, to bring forth, bore, bare. bôm. Bear, to carry, sus- bore, bare, börne. tain.

Man is born for labour. We have borne the heat of the day; have borne a heavy burden.

bēaten, bēat. Beat, bëat. begun. Begin, began, beheld (beholden as an Behold. beheld. adjective). bent. Bend, un, bent, berëst, bereaved. Bereave, B bereft, bereared, besought, besought. Beseech. bidden, bid. Bid, for,a bid, băde, bound, bound. Bind, un, bit, (2 pers. bittest)b bitten, bit. Bite, bled, (2 pers. bleddeet) bled. Bleed, blown. Blow, blew. broken. Breāk. broke, bred, (2 pers. breddest) bred. Breed, \cdot brought. brought, Bring, built. built. Build, re, burned, burnt. burned, burnt, Burn, burst. Burst. burst, bought. Buy, bought, cast. cast. Cast. caught. caught, Catch, chid, (2 pers. chiddest) chidden, chid. Chide. chose.

a. Compound verbs (except welcome and Dlare, which are regular) are conjugated like their simples, by prefixing the syllables appended to them; as, forbid, forbidden.

b. Monoryliables (see 49) ending with a single consonant after a single youel, and also words accented on the last syllable, double the final consonant upon assuming an additional syllable leginning with a vowel; as, bit, bitest; begin, legimer.

Present.	Past.	Perf. Part.
S Cleave, to adhere,	cleaved, clave,	cleaved.
Cleave, to split,	cleft or clove,	cleft, cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed.	clothed, clad.
Come, be, over,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Cost,	erept,	crept.
Creep,	crowed, crew,	crowed.
Crow,	cut, (2 pers. cuttest)	cut.
Cut,	durst,	dared.
Dare, to tenture, Dare, to challenge,	durad	dared (regular).
	dared,	differ (10) in a
defy,	4×14	dĕalt.
Dēal,	dëalt,	dug.
Dig,	dug, (duggest)	done.
Do, mie, un,	did, (didst)	_
Draw, with,	drew,	drawn. drunk.
Drink,	drank,	
Drive,	drove,	driven. dwelt.
Dwell,	dwelt,	
Eat,	atc,	ēaten.
Fall, bc,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed, (feddest)	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee, from danger,	fled, (fleddest)	tled.
Fly, as a bird, Flow, as water,	flew,	flown.
Flow, as water,	flöwed,	flöwed (regular).
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Forbear,	forbore,	forbörne.
Forsäke,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
L. 36.—Get, be, for,		got.d
Gild,	gilt,	gilt.
Gird, be,	girt, girded,	girt, girded.
Give, for, mis,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave, en,	graved,	graven, graved.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grōw,	grew,	grōwn.
Hăre,	had,	had.
Hang, on a peg, pir		hung.
fc. Hang, to take awa	y hanged,	hanged (regular).

life, The robber was hanged; the room was hung with tapestry; I have hung my hat on the nail.

c. Dare, when trans., makes dares, dares, in 2nd and 3rd perr. sing.; Dare, intran., is frequently, but contrary to analogy, not changed; as, "Thou dare not go;" "He dare not go." (See 182. c. 398. d.)
d. Getten is nearly obsolete, but its compound forgotten is frequently need.

Present. Past. Perf. Part. Hëar, heard. hĕard. Hew. hewed. hewn, hewed. Hide, hid, (hiddeet) hidden, hid. Hĭt, hit, (hittest) hit. Hold, bc, with, held, held. Hurt. hurt hurt. Recp, kept, kept. Kneel knelt, kneit. Knit, knit, knitted. knit, knitted. Know, . knew, known. Lade, to load, to laded. laden. (This verbisless freight a resect. used than load.) Lade, to throw out laded. laded (regular). water. Load, loaded. laden, loaded. Lay, (tr.) to place, laid, Pres. Part. laying, laid. to put, Lie, (int.) to liedown, lay, Pres. Part. lying, lain. to repose, Lie, (int.) to speak lied, Pres. Part. lying, lied (regular). falsely, Lay, (tr.) to place; The mother lays the child in bed; the laid it in the led; the has laid it; it is laid in the bed. Lie, to lie down; He lies too long in bed; he lay yesterday too long; he has lain too long this morning; he is lying too long. Lie, to speak falsely; He lies, is lying; he lied; he has fied to frequently that no one believes him. led. Lead, mis, led, (leddest) left, left. Leave, Lend. lent. lent. Let, let, (lettert) let. lighted, lit, lighted, lit. Light, 1024. lost. (Lose (pr. looz), to suffer loss, Loose (pr. loose), to loosed, loosed (regular). untie, made. made. Make, un. meant, meant. Mean. met, (meticsf) Meet. met. möwed. mown, mowed. Mow, paid. paid Pay, re, pent. (Pen, to coop up, enpent, close, Pen, to write, penned (regular). penned, put, (puttes!) put. Put, read. Rēad. read. rent. Rend. rent, rid, (riddert) rid. Rid, rode, Rīde, ridden, rode. rang, rung," rung. Ring,

e. When the past tense ends in any or ung, any is preferable, in order to dis-

tinguish it from the perfect participle.

_	IRREGULAR VERD	. ,
Para. 220.]		Perf. Part.
	Past.	risen.
Present.	rose,	
Rise, a,	rived,	rotten, rotted.
Rive,	rotted.	run.
Rot,	ran, (rannest)	EAWD.
Run, out,	sawed,	said.
Saw,	said,	seen.
Say, un,	EBW.	sought
See,	sought,	sõld.
Seek,	,bloa	sent-
Sell,	cent	set.
Send,	not (settlest)	eat.
Set, (tr.) to pla	upon, sat, (sattest) shook,	-holes.
Sit, (int.) to rest	shook	chaned, shapen.
Shake,	shaped,	shaved, shaven.
Shape, mis,	shaved,	shorn.
Shave,	ahoared.	
Shear,	shed, (sheddest)	shed.
Sied,	chône.	shone.
Shine,	shod (shodder)	shod.
Shoe,	shot (Shouled)	shot. shown, shewn.
Shoot.	shower enemers	
Show or shew,	1 A Controllation) shred.
1.37.—Shree	shrank, shrunk,	shrunk.
Shrink,	shut, (shuttest)	shut.
Shut	ERUC (SECTION)	sung.
Sing,	song, sung,	sunk.
Sink,	sank, sunk,	slain.
Slay,	slew,	slept.
Sleep,	alept,	slidden.
Slide,	slid, (sliddest)	slung.
Sling,	slang, slung,	slunk.
Slink,	slunk,	slit, slitted.
Slit,	slit, (slittest)	smitten.
	emote,	eōwn.
Smite,	itter seeds, sowed,	sewed (regular).
Som to st	itch with a sewed,	•
needle,		spoken.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	a ened.
Speed,	sped, (spedde	spelled (spell).
Spell,	Ebelled' (gher.	spent.
Spend, mi	spent,	spilt.
Spend, m	spilt,	spun.
Spill,	span, span,	
Spin,	throw out spat, spit, (s	
1 ent///	·	spitted (regular).
Spit to	put upon a spitted,	
spit,	I +	test) split.
Calit	split, (split	readest) spread.
Split,	spread, (sp.	readuct)
Sprěad,	sprang, sp	rung, stood.
Spring, Stand, 1		
biano,	~,	E 9

, ; ()

Present.	Past.	Perf. Part.
Stay,	staid, stayed	staid, stayed.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stick,	stuck.	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stank, stunk,	stunk.
Stride,	strode, strid,	stridder.
Strike.	struck.	struck, stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strive.	strove.	striven.
S4. ==4=		strówn, strówed.
Ströw or strew,	ströwed or strewed,	atrewn, strewed.
Sweār,	swore,	swôrn.
-Sweat,	sweat, (sweatest)	swčat.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, swelled.
Swim,	swam, swam,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take, bc, mis,	took,	inken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Teār, un,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	tõld,	töld.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	throve,	thriven,
Throw,	tlirew,	thröwn.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Trčad,	trod, (trod <i>dest</i>)	trodden
Wax,	waxed,	waxed, waxen.
Weār,	wore,	worn.
Wēave,	wove,	woren.
Wecp,	wept,	wept.
I Wet, to moisten,	wet, (wetlest)	wet.
Whet, to charpen,	whetted,	whetted (regular).
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	πŏund.
Work,	worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

- f. Those past tenses and perfect participles which are the first mentioned, are the most eligible. Obsolete words and such as are used only by the vulgar, are omitted; such are areathen, drunten, holpen, gotten, bounden, &c.; and snang, arrang, slank, strawed, gal, brake, lare, ware, &c. Several past tenses are contained in the authorised translation of the Bible, which are now obsolete in good conversation.
- g. In the preceding List, several Regular verbs are inserted, to show the difference between them and others spelled and pronounced the same.
- h. It is recommended, that the pupil be taught to conjugate some of the Irregular Verbs throughout, that he may thus perceive the difference between the Regular and Irregular Verbs.
- i. The Verbs Hare and He must be followed by the Perfect Participle, and not by the Past tense; thus, I have led, I am led; He had written, It was written.

6. ADVERBS.

LESSON 38.—Exercise 36.—Page 23.

- 221. An Adverb is a word used with verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs to express some circumstance of time, place, manner, degree, affirmation, &c.; as, "He wrote lately;" "He lives here;" "He reads well;" "A truly diligent scholar;" "He speaks very fluently."
- a. An adverb is added to a rerb to denote the manner of the action, or some circumstance respecting it; as, "He writes correctly:"—to an adjective, to denote some modification of the quality; as, "A truly diligent scholar:"—to an advert, to denote some degree of the modification of an action; as, "He speaks very finently."
- b. An advert may generally be known by its answering to the question, Hou? when? or where? thus, "He acted nobly;" "How did he act?" Answer, "Nobly," the word nobly is therefore an adverb. "He read the paper lately;" "When did he read the paper?" Answer, "Lately." "It went upwards;" "Where did it go?" Answer, "Ipwards."
- c. The circumstances of the action expressed by moods and tenses, are of a nature too general to be sufficient of themselves for the purposes of communication. It is often necessary, therefore, to be much more particular in ascertaining both the time, manner, and place of an action. One important object of the adverb is to accomplish these ends. Thus we may say an action was done lately, long ago; or, it is to be done nor, immediately; or, it will be done hereofter; or, it will be repeated often, seldom, daily, oner, urice, &c. Eo, we may say that it was done here, there, ponder; it was well or til done.
- d. Adverts, in general, are abbreviations of two or more words: thus, brarely, or, "in a brave manner," is derived from brave-like, which from wheelike, happily from happy-like. Adverts therefore express, in one word, what would otherwise require two or more words; thus, here, there, denote in this place, in that place; hither, thither, to this place, to that place; hence, thence, from this place, from that place. Why, while, whence, are derived from who, and partake much of the nature of the relative.

222. a. The following Table comprises the principal Adverbs: -- Addition; as, Also, too.

Aftermation or Certainty; as, Absolutely, aye, certainly, doubtless, indeed, maily, surely, truly, verily, undoubtedly, yea, yes, precisely, of course, in truth, just so.

Cours, Effect, Inference; as, Consequently, hence, so, then, therefore, wherefore, why. (When these words are used as Connectives, they may be regarded as Conjunctions.)

Comparison: as, Alike, as, better, best, less, least, more, most, rather, than, so, too, worse, worst, the more, the less.

Contingency; as, Peradventure, perchance, perhaps, possibly, probably, improbably, likely.

Degree: as, Almost, completely, exceedingly, eminently, greatly, hardly, however, merely, moreover, nearly, only, quite, scarcely, simply, very.

Equality or Likeness; as, As, equally, so, thus,

Explanation; as, Namely.

Inequality or Unlikeness; as, Else, otherwise.

Interrogation; as, How, why, wherefore; with many words implying also the idea of time on place; as, When did he come? Whence did he come? How is also an advert of Manner, &c.

Manner or Quality; as, As, well, ill, how, so, thus, anyhow, hastly, earnestly, foolishly, justly, quickly, together, thoroughly, wisely. Adverbs of this kind are the most numerous, and are generally formed by adding by to an adjective; as, bad, badiy; or by changing be into by; as, able, abby; or y into by; as, steady, steadily. But such forms as holiby, goddily, from holy, godby, must be avoided.

Motion to or from a place; as, Away, backwards, down, downwards, forward, homeward, sidewards, up, upwards, hence, thence, whence, hither, thither, whither, to, fro, forth, off, far, near, wide.

Negation; as, Nay, no, not, not at all, hy no means, not so, on no account, &c. Number; as, Once, twice, thrice, &c.

Order; as, First, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, &c.

Place: as, Above, anywhere, before, behind, below, everywhere, elsewhere, nowhere, here, there, where, herein, therein, wherein, inside, outside, without, yonder.

Quantity; as, Abundantly, coplously, enough, entirely, much, partly, sufficiently, scarcely, somewhat, universally.

Separation; as, Apart, separately, asunder, off.

Time; as, Already, afterwards, again, anon, anew, afresh, awhile, as (in the sense of when), before, by-and-by, betimes, continuously, daily, ever, formerly, generally, heretofore, bitherto, henceforth, henceforwards, hereafter, hourly, immediately, instantly, lately, long ago, meantime, meanwhile, monthly, now, not yet, never, oft, often, oft-times, presently, rarely, seldom, sometimes, soon, still, since, then, when, while, yet.

- b. To-day, to-morrow, and yesterday, are properly nouns, though frequently included under adverbs.
- c. Many adverbs are formed by a combination of a preposition and the adverb of place, here, there, and where as, hereof, thereof, whereof, hitherto, hereto, bereby, thereby, whereby, becewith, therewith, herein, therein, wherein, &c. Some are composed of nouns, and the letter a used instead of al, on, &c.; as, aside, athirst, shead, abroad, ashore, aground, afloat, &c. The adverbs, here, there, when prefixed to prepositions, have the nature of prououns; as, hereby (by this), herein (in this), herewith, thereby, whereby, &c.
- d. An adverbial phrase consists of two or more words taken together, which serve the purpose of Adverbs; as, by-and-by, now and then, in general, now-a-days, at length, not at all, in fact, in truth, at best, at least, at most, &c. They ran to and fro, up and down, in and out.
- 223. a. Most adverbs ending in ly may be compared by prefixing more and most; less and least; as, wisely, more wisely, most wisely; less culpably; least culpably. A few adverbs are compared by adding er and est; as, soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest; forth, further, furthest. "The oftener I see him, the more I like him."
- b. Some words are used sometimes as Adjectives and sometimes as Adverbs; as, less, least, more, most, &o. These and similar words are Adjectives when conjoined with Nouns to denote some property belonging to the objects for which the noans stand; and Adverbs, when employed to modify Verbs, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

7. PREPOSITIONS.

LESSON 39.—Exercise 39.—Page 23.

224. a. A Preposition is a word placed before nouns or pronouns to show the relation in which persons or things stand with regard to other persons or things in the sentence; as, "He went from London to Leeds."

- b. "He went from London to Leeds;" here, from points out the place of commencement, and to that of termination. "They are instructed by him;" here, by shows the relation that they have to him; the word him denotes the agent, the instructor. The term Preposition is derived from prace, before, and rono, to put.
- c. The principal use of prepositions in English is, to express those relations which, in some languages, are chiefly denoted by cases or the terminations of the noun. The relation implied must, of course, always determine what particular preposition should be employed.
- d. Prepositions were originally either nowns or verbs, and they still retain much of their original import. They were at first employed to denote the relations of place; but, in the progress of language, they have been applied to express other relations, which bear some analogy to that of place. Thus, as a person standing on the top of an eminence is above another who, standing at the bottom of it, is under him; hence, above and under distinctly express the relation which one place has to another. In like manner, as a king, by the superiority of his station, is of higher rank than any of his subjects, so, by the amalogy of his condition to that of a person on the top of an eminence, we say that the king is exalted above his subjects, and that subjects live under the government of their king.
- e. Prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case; as, In London, to him, for us, with Gren. Some prepositions when placed ofter the cerb have the object understood; as, "He rides about (the country)." "He dwells above (the earth)." In some instances, such words modify the meaning and form part of the verb; as, the words up, on, occr, out, in the phrases "to call up;" "to fall on the enemy;" "to give over;" "to hold out."
- 225. a. The following Prepositions are in most frequent use:—Abaft, about, above, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, astride, at, athwart; Before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by; Down, during; Except; For, from; In, into, instead of; Of, on, upon, over, out of; Save, since (231); Through; throughout, till, to, towards; Under, underneath, unto, up; With, within, without.
- b. According (followed by to), concerning, excepting, pending, respecting, touching, are properly Participles, and are frequently so employed, but in many phrases, which are generally elliptical, they may be considered Prepositions; as, "According to my ideas;" "He spoke concerning that matter."— Except and Sore are properly Verbs in the Imperative Mood, but sometimes used as Prepositions; as, "All except him."—Near, nigh, next, are Adjectives, having to understood; as, "Near (to) him;" "Next (to) him."
- c. Several phrases are used as Compound Propositions; such as, out of, from blow, from beyond, instead of, on account of, by means of, in place of, with regard to, apart from, owing to, in reference to, in compartion of, in point of, by reason of, with respect to, &c.
- d. Some of the preceding words are Adverbs as well as Prepositions, the sense alone determining to which class they belong.—But, for (because), and since are also Conjunctions.
- 226. a. Most of the English Prepositions are derived from the Saxon—the following is an explanation of the principal:—

Afore means high, overhead; as, " Abore the skies."

About eignifies limit, boundary; as, " The wall about the city."

Acrou, from side to side; as, "He stegred acrou the river."

After, behind, following; as, "One after another."

Against, opposite, hostile; as, "Offences against the law."

Along, through the length of, in the direction of; ce, "They marched along the river."

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Amid, amidst, imply quantity, in the middle; as, "The licro amidst dangers."

Among, amongst, imply number, mixed with; as, "The tares among the wheat."

Around, round, about, on every side of ; as, " The walls around the city."

Al, nearness, presence; as, "The Gaul is at the gates of Rome."

Athuart, across, wrested, twisted; as, "Athuart the gl n."

By was formerly written be, and is the imperative of the Saxon beon, to be. By signifies the means, doer, time, and place; as, "A man is known by his actions;" "All things were made by God;" "He has visited us by day and be night;" "By the rivers of Babylon we sat down." By is frequently joined with other words; in this case, however, it assumes the old form, be; as, in because, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond;—

Because (conjunction), by the cause, the cause is.

Before, signifies advancement, priority (by the fore, be it fore part); as, "John is before Charles,"

Behind, in the rear (by the hind, be it hind part); as, "The guard behind the coach."

Below, inferior or lower position (by the low, be it low); as, "Below the moon."

Beneath, lower (by the neath, be it neath, or low); as, "To place a cushlon beneath one."

Besides, in addition to; as, "Besides the gain, there is the honour."

Beside, near (by the side, be it side); as, " Beside the waters."

Between, in the intermediate space (by the lucain, be they twain, or two); as, "York is between London and Edinburgh."

Betwirt, in the midst of two; as, " Betwirt the chair and table."

Deyond, passed, gone by (by the yond, be it yond, or passed); as, "India beyond the Ganges."

Concerning (properly a Participle), relating to; as, "I wrote to you concerning that matter."

During, continuing, lasting: as, "During the space of a year."

Except (properly a Verb), excluded ; as, "All were involved except one."

For, cause, object, substitute; as, "I cannot go for want of time;" "He has done so much for you;" "An attorney is employed to act for his client."

From, commencement or source, distance; as, "From the beginning to the end;" "That be far from me."

In, enclosed, the state, time, or manner; as, "He is in the house;" "He is in health;" "He was born in 1800."

Into denotes entrance, and is used after verbs which imply motion; as, "He retired into the country." In is used when motion or rest in a place is signified; as, "He is walking in the garden."

Near, nigh (properly Adjectives with to understood), approximation; as, "He is near the city."

Of, (a) possession, (b) effect, (c) author or source, (d) privation, (e) subject, (f) materials, (g) name; as, (a) "The house of Thomas;" (b) "The productions of wisdom;" (c) "The father of the child;" (d) "The loss of the ship;" (e) "The first book of Kings;" (f) "A crown of gold;" (g) "The county of York."

Off is an Adverb, denoting distance, on the other side; as, "He came off, drove off, kept off, paid off." We also say, "Off my hands;" "Off the ground." (See 417. b.)

On, upon, support; as," He sat on a rock."

Over, higher : as, " The heavens over our heads."

Through (from thurk, a door), passage, means; as," Water through the pipe."

To or unto denotes end, act, and is opposed to from; as, "He rode from Leeds to York." (Two is an adverb of addition or excess; as, "I too will go.")

Toward, towards, in a direction to; as, " It moved toward the city." .

With, joining; as, "A house with a party-wall;" that is, "joining a party-wall."

Without has an opposite meaning to with; i.e. be out.

- b. On, in common conversation, frequently becomes o' or a; ns. "o'clock;" that is, on the clock; aride, on side; asleep, on sleep. So also we say, "He went a hunting;" "a fishing;" "cc.; that is, on hunting, on fishing, or on a hunting errorsion, &c. In the Bible, we read "He was an hungred," a loose colloquial form current about 200 years ago.
- c. For an explanation of the inseparable prepositions, see 285, under Derivation.

8. CONJUNCTIONS.

LESSON 40.-Exercise 40.-Page 24.

- 227. a. A Conjunction is a word used to join words in construction, or to connect parts of sentences, so as to form a single whole; as, "One and one make two;" "He and I must go."
- b. Conjunctions connect—1. Two or more prepositions; as, "He and I must go;" that is, "He must go," "I must go." 2. Two words having the same subject or object relation; as, "One and one make two," "Between him and me."—Sometimes conjunctions begin sentences after a full period, showing some relation between the sentences in the general tenour of discourse.
- c. Several words besides conjunctions are employed as Connecties; as, the Relatives—who, which:—the Adverbs when, whence, wherein, where, whereby, whereas, whereat, wherear, whereapon, whit, than and as, and also Prepositions.—But Conjunctions differ—1, from the Prepositions in not governing any case;—2, from Relatives in joining independent propositions;—3, from Adverbs in requiring a particular position in the sentence, in order to preserve the sense.
 - 228. a. Conjunctions are either Co-ordinative or Subordinative.
- 1. Co-ordinative Conjunctions combine two or more independent clauses into one sentence, either 1, when one affirmative clause is either added to or opposed to another; or 2, when an alternative is proposed; or 3, when the latter of two clauses is the effect or consequence of the former.

The following are Co-ordinative Conjunctions and Adverbs :-

- Addition; —And (both—and, also, as well as, likewise, further, moreover, not only—but).
- Contrariety;—But (nevertheless, notwithstanding, on the contrary, on the other hand, still, yet, not—but, but—then, however, only).
- 3. An Allernative; Either-or, whether-or, otherwise, else,
- 4. Exclusion :- Neither-nor.
- The Matire, denoting a consequence or inference following from what has been said; as, Accordingly, consequently, hence, thence, then, therefore, wherefore.

(When these words connect a conclusion, &c., to a preceding part, they are Conjunctions, otherwise they are Adverbs.)

2. Subordinative Conjunctions connect two clauses, of which one is the principal, and the other some modification of it with regard to cause, condition, consequence, time, place, or manner.

Subordinative Conjunctions may be arranged in the following classes:-

- a. Ground; -As, because, inasmuch as, for, seeing that, since, whereas, &c.
- b. Condition; -- If, except, unless, in case, provided, supposing that, &c. 1. Causal.
 - c. Concession; -Aithough, though, however, yet, notwithstanding, nevertheless.
 - d. Purpose;-That, so that, in order that, lext.
 - (a. Point of ;-As, after, as soon as, before, ere, when.
- 2. Time. b. Duration ;-As long as, whilst, until. c. Repetition ;- As often as, when, whenever.
- (a. Motion to or from :-Whither, whence. 3. Mace.
- b. Rest in :- Where.
- a. Liteness;—As, as if, as though, how. 4. Manner. b. Relation; -- As--as, so--as, according as, than. e. Consequence; That, so that.
- b. Several of the words mentioned as Conjunctions are sometimes Adverba, and sometimes Prepositions, according to the sense.
- c. Several Conjunctions go in Pairs, and are thus called Corresponding or Correlative Conjunctions. These are—Either—or; Neither—nor; If—then;—Both—and;—So—that;—So—as;—Whether—or;—Although, though,—yet, notwithstanding. (See 439.)
- d. Compound Conjunctions or conjunctional Phrases are formed of two or more words: as, As if, in order that, as though, and also, but also, as soon as, in as far as.

9. INTERJECTIONS.

- 229. a. An Interjection expresses some sudden wish or emotion of the mind.
 - b. The most common Interjections are the following:-

Approval; -Bravol
Attention; -Behold! hark! hist! Lo! Aversion or Contempt; -Fiel Fudge! Foh! Pugh!

Calling; Halloo! Hollo! hem! ho! Dirbellef; Bah! hum! prhaw! pooh! Grid; -Alack! alas! Oh!

Displeasure; -- Fie! shame! away!

Joy; -- Hurrah! Huzza! Pain :- Oh! Hoo! O! Reduke:-Tush! Silence:-Hush! Ellence! Still! Surprise: -Indeed, Ay, sy! Ah! Ah! Aha! La! Really! Stitutation; -Hail! Welcome! Taking Leave; -- Adieu! Parewell!

- c. Sometimes verbs, nonns, and adjectives, uttered by way of exclamation, are considered as Interjections; as, Hail! Behold! Hearens! Shocking!
- d. The Interjections O! Oh! Ah! are followed by the Objective Case of a pronoun of the First person; Oh me! but by the Nominative of a pronoun of the Second person; as, O Thou!

ON THE INTERCHANGE OF PARTS OF SPEECH.

LESSON 91.—Exercise 91.—Page 25.

- 230. a. In many instances, the same word, without undergoing any alteration in form, belongs sometimes to one part of speech, and sometimes to another. Regard, therefore, must always be had to the particular signification of the words, since that must determine to what part of speech each belongs. Thus, the word light may be a noun, an adjective, or a verb, according to the sense in which it is employed; as, "The light (noun) of the sun;" "Light (adj.) rooms;" "To light (rerb) a candle." Some words are distinguished by a difference of the accent; as, "The produce (noun) of the fields;" "The fields produce (verb) in abundance."
- b. The same word must originally have been, both in signification and use, only one part of speech. But, in process of time, it was employed to perform several distinct offices, and hence, according to its import, would be ranked under different parts of speech.
- 231. The words which generally occasion a difficulty to the young student, in ascertaining to what part of speech they respectively belong, are, As, after, before, both, but, considering, either, for, however, much, more, no, notwithstanding, only, since, that, then, therefore.
- a. As is used—1. As a Conjunction having a connective meaning; as, "As (since, quoniam) you have completed the work, you shall be paid." To denote Manner, as, "He did as I desired" (Fecit ut jussi). "They acted as men should act." "As it seems, you have acted wisely."—2. As an Adverb, to denote comparison or degree; as, "He is as generous as he is rich." To denote equality; as, "He is as good as she." In the sense of when; as, "As (when) I passed, I noticed a crowd."—3. As a Relative; as, "The terms are as (those which) follow."—1. As a Demonstrative Adjective; as, "His month is as (that of) a lion."—As a Correlative Adjective, when following such, the same; as, "They were such men as those." "He is such as he has ever been" (Talis est qualis semper fuit). "He is the same as he has always been" (Idem est qui semper fuit).—5. As—as; as—as; so—as; are Correlative Adverbs.
 - b. After, before, alove, beneath, and similar words, appear sometimes to have the nature of Adverts; as, "He died not long before." By supplying, however, the nouns time and place, they will resume their proper import of Prepositions; as, "He died not long before that time."
 - c. Both is, in strictness, an Adjective. It is, however, more convenient to regard it as sometimes an Adjective and cometimes a Conjunction.—1. As an Adjective; as, "Both men were present."—2. As a Correlative Conjunction, serving to prepare the mind for some addition in the subsequent clause expressed by and. In this sense, if translated into Latin, both would be rendered by et or turn; as Both you and I saw him" (Every et a emm vidinus). So also, in the clause, "Both by their preaching, and by their living, they may set forth Thy glory."
 - d. But is used—1. As a Conjunction to connect two clauses of which the latter is either an exception from, or in opposition to the former; as, "You may ask lut you will not obtain."—2. As a Preposition; as, "All but (except) John, agreed." "I cannot but speak;" that is, "I cannot (do anything) but (except this, I can) speak."—3. As an Adverb in the sense of only; as, "There is but (only) one present."
 - e. Considering is properly an active Participle; thus, "Considering his leisure, he has done little;" that is, "(Any one) considering his leisure (will know that) he has done little."

- f. Either, Neither are used,—1. As Distributive Pronouns; as, "Either of these will do." "Neither of the men was present."—2. As Conjunctions; as, "Either learn or depart." "He neither walked nor rode."
- g. For is used,—1. As a Preposition; as, "He contended for victory."—2. As a Conjunction; as, "I submitted, for (because) it was vain to resist."
- h. However is used,—1. As an Adverb; as, "To trace the ways of highest egents, deemed however wise."—2. As a Conjunction in the sense of nevertheless; as, "You might, however, have taken a fairer way."
- i. Much, more, and most are used,—1. As Adjectives; thus, "Much money was expended;" "More praises have been bestowed;" "Most men think indistinctly."—2. As Advertes; thus, "It is much better to isbour than to be slothful;" "He is more diligent;" "He has acted most presumptiously." In the sentence, "Where much is given, much is required." much is an adjective, some word being understood; as, "Where much grace has been given, much gratitude is required."
- . j. No is used,—I. As an Adjective; as, "I have no (not any) paper."—2. As an Adverb; as, "Were you present? No."
- F. Notwithstanding is used,—1. As an Active Participle; as, "Notwithstanding my prohibition, he wrote;" that is, "He wrote, my prohibition notwithstanding him."—2. As a Preposition; as, "Notwithstanding him, John departed." In this clause, also, notwithstanding might in strictness be considered a participle; as, "John departed, the other notwithstanding."—3. As a Conjunction; as, "I will rend the kingdom from thee, and give it to thy servant; Notwithstanding, in thy days I will not do it."
- 1. Only is used,—1. As an Adverb, in the sense of simply, merely; as, "He was only asking a question."—2. As an Adjective, signifying one alone, single; as, "He only was raved."—3. Only is sometimes equivalent to but; as, "You may act as you please, only (but) consider the consequences." For the proper position of only in a sentence, see 415.
- m. Since is used,—1. As a Conjunction; as, "Since we must part, let us do it penceably."—2. As a Preposition; as, "I have not seen him since that time."—3. As an Adrerb; as, "Our friendship commenced long since."
- n. That is used, -1. As a Relative, -2. As a Demonstrative Adjective, -3. As a Conjunction. (See 119. d.)
- o. Then is used,—1. As an Adverb; as, "He answered then and not before."
 —2. As a Conjunction; as, "I rest, then, upon the strength of this argument."
- p. Therefore, wherefore, &c. when they connect a conclusion to a preceding part, are Conjunctions. When following and, if, since, &c., they are Adverts; as, "He is good, and therefore he is happy." They might, however, be always considered as Adverts.
 - Additional Examples are given in the vol. of Exercises, p. 25 to p. 36.
- 232. Grammalical Parsing, or resolving a sentence into the simple elements of which it is composed, may be conveniently divided into three ascending series:—
- a. The First Mode is. To write the name of the Part of Speech under which each word in the sentence can be placed. See 59, p. 19 of this Gram. and Model 1, p. 169 of the Ex.
- b. The Second Mode is an amplification of the preceding, and consists of mentioning the principal properties of each word, according to the Table, p. 20 of this Gram. and Model 2 of the Ex. p. 170.
 - c. The Third or Syntactical Mode is stating the concord, government, connection or arrangement of words in a sentence, according to Model 3 of Ex. p. 170, and 446 of this Gram.

. C. To lear thatin

III. DERIVATION.

LESSONS 42, 43.—Exercises 42, 43.—Page 37.

Nw.-Derication might be deferred by young pupils till Punctuation has been completed.

- 1. 42.—233. Derivation is that part of Etymology which treats of the origin and primary signification of words.
 - 234. a. Words are either Primitive, Derivative, or Compound.
- b. A Primitice, radical, or root word is not derived from another word in the language; as, kind, wise. The primitive words of a language are always few in comparison with the total amount of its vocabulary.
- c. The true root of a word is not a word in present use, but is the elementary or crude form from which it is derived; thos, ag in agent. But for general purposes, the whole word from which others are derived, may be considered the Primittre word.
- d. A Derivative word is one that is formed from a primitive; 1, by changing either some vowel or consonant; as, long, length; bend, bent. These are termed Primary Derivatives. Or, 2, by prefixing or annexing a syllable; thus, un-kind; kind-ly. Derivatives formed in the latter manner, are called secondary Derivatives.
- e. The use of derivatives arises from the natural disposition in man to alter and medify words already in existence, rather than invent sounds altogether arbitrary, to express such new ideas as the collargement of his knowledge suggests.
- 285. a. A Compound word is generally formed by the union of two or more primitive words which either undergo no alteration, or a very slight one; as, book-case.
- b. Permanent Compounds and Derivatives are consolidated, or considered as one word; as, bookeller.
- c. When the first word of a Compound is not an Adjective, but may be placed after the second as belonging to it with of, for, in, &c., a Hyphen (-) should be placed between the two; as, a Corn-mill, lea-goon, ship-builder, horse-dealer; that is, a mill for grioding corn; a spoon used for ten; a builder of ships, &c. The second word denotes the genus (mill), and the first word the particular kind (corn).
- d. In instances of this kind, the Accent must be on the first word, otherwise, the sense is quite altered; thus, "A glass-house" means a house for the manufacture of glass; but a "glass-house" is one made of glass.

1. HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

236. OF THE PRINCIPAL MIGRATIONS INTO EUROPE.—The Migrations from the East, which have been the principal means of peopling the continent of Europe as well as its islands, are, according to Dr. Bosworth and others, the Cellic, Gothic, and Slaronian.

237. The Celts early migrated from the East, and peopled the extreme Western parts of Europe. Their language is divided into two dialects, the Gaēlic and the Cymric: the former embracing the Erse or Irish, the Gaëlic or Highland Scotch, and the Manx of the Isle of Man; the latter, the Welsh or ancient British, the old Cornish (extinct), and the Armorican of Brittany. The English Language has borrowed several single words from the Celtic.

238. The Gothic or Teutonic Tribes migrated from the Euxine and Caspian Seas about 700 years before Christ; and eventually occupied the Northern, Central, and Western parts of Europe. The Teutonic Language comprises two great branches—1, the German; 2, the Scandinavian.—1. The German includes (a) the Masso-Gothic, now extinct; (b) the Low German, spoken in the flat or northern parts of Germany. This includes the Anglo-Saxon or English, the Old Saxon, Friesian, Dutch, and Flemish; (c) the High German, spoken in the interior.—2. The Scandinavian Branch includes (a) the old Scandinavian, which comprised the Icelandic and Ferroic; (b) The New Scandinavian, comprising the Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian Dialects.

239. The Third stream of population which flowed into Europe about the third century before Christ, conveyed the Slavonian or Sarmatian nations. These occupied Russia, Poland, Eastern Prussia, Moravia, Bohemia, and their vicinity. From these Slavonian tribes a third genus of European languages arose, as the Russian, Polish, Bohemian, &c.

240. The Fourth class of languages which may here be noticed, as influencing the southern dialects of Europe and supplying thousands of words to the English, embraces the Greek and Latin. The Greek, now termed Romaic, is, in a modified form, still spoken in Modern Greece and the islands of the Ægean sea, while Latin forms the parent of the French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Sicilian dialects. The Greeks and Latins were a branch of the Great Caucasian or Indo-European family which early passed over into Greece and Italy.

241. British and Rohan Period.—The earliest account of ancient Britain which has reached modern times is that contained in the Fifth Book of the Commentaries of Julius Caesar. According to Caesar's description, the island was very populous even at that period, about fifty-five years before Christ. The maritime regions towards the east were occupied by various tribes from ancient Belgica, who were very similar to the Gauls in language and customs. The interior and western districts were possessed by tribes whose origin was involved in obscurity, but who, perhaps, had emigrated at some distant period from the shores of Spain.

- 242. When Britain was completely subdued by the victorious arms of Agricols, in A.D. 85, and annexed to the Roman empire as a permanent province, every exertion was employed by the Roman governors to instruct the British youth in the language, manners, and civilisation of their conquerors. In process of time many Latin words were incorporated into the Celtic, portions of which remain as terminations in certain English words; as, Chester from castra; coln in Lincoln, &c. from colonia; street from strata; port in Portsmouth, &c. from portus.
- 243. SAXON PERIOD.—When the Romans were compelled finally, in A.D. 448, to withdraw their legions from Britain, the Britons were unable to withstand the attacks of their northern neighbours, the Picts and Scots. In this emergency they called in to their assistance the Jutes, a piratical tribe occupying Julland, the northern part of modern Denmark. The Jutes were soon joined by their neighbours the Angles and Saxons.
- 244. The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes were kindred tribes, occupying adjoining districts, speaking, with some variations of dialect, the same language, and following the same customs. By degrees they succeeded in dispossessing the Britons of the entire Eastern, Southern, and Central portions of the country, till about 586 A.D. they had? conquered eight extensive districts or kingdoms, known afterwards as the Saxon Octarchy. These were settled by the tribes in the following order :-

I. Acht	of lutes in 45%.
2. Sussex, &c	.by Eaxons in 491.
J. Wesser	by Eaxons in 519.
4. Essex	by Eaxons in 527.
5. Bernicia	bom≈713 al estraA vd.

nod. Northumberland. 6. Bernich by Angles in 64: = 1061. Aorthumberiand.
6. Deira. by Angles in 571 = Durham, Yorks. and Lincoln.
7. E. Anglis. by Angles in 571 = Norfolk, Suffolk.
8. Mercia by Angles in 526 = midland counties.

- 245. The Britons having thus been driven by degrees into the Western parts of the island, formed the following separate principalities :---
 - a. Cambria, or North Wales, corresponded nearly to modern Wales,
 b. Cornwall, or West Wales, comprised Cornwall and part of Devonshire.
 - c. Cumbrio, comprised modern Comberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. d. Strathclyde, comprised mod. Wigton, Ayr, and S.W. counties of Scotland.
- 246. In Saxon Britain, as the Jutes formed only a small portion compared with the Angles and Saxons, the people about A.D. 800 were called Anglo-Saxons, and the country, from the chief tribe, Angle-Land, which was afterwards contracted into England.
- 247. Wherever the Saxons conquered, they substituted their own language in the place of the British. The districts in which the ancient British continued the longest to be spoken were-Cumberland and Strathclyde, where it was spoken in the tenth century; Cornwall, where it existed till the reign of Elizabeth; Wales, where it continues to be spoken to this day .- The Anglo-Saxon is the mother-tongue of modern English.

- 248. During the Saxon Octarchy, and for ages after, four languages were spoken in the British Islands,-
 - 1. Latin, the language of the clergy, and the vehicle of learning;
- The Anglo-Saxon or Frisic, by the Anglo-Saxons occupying the central and eastern parts of England and Scotland;

3. The Cymric or British, preserved in the Welsh;

- 4. The Gadic or Erse, spoken in Ireland and N. of Scotland.
- L. 43.—249. a. As the Saxons led a life of hardihood and warfare, it is natural to suppose that their language would be, like themselves, hard, rough, and unpolished. Accordingly, we find the Saxon and the kindred northern languages abounding in consonants and difficult of utterance except to a native. They are, however, distinguished for singular vigour and capability of forming a vast variety of compounds.
- b. Long after the establishment of the Saxons in this island, the language was totally devoid of every species of composition, and of all recognised principles of Orthography and Grammar. The deficiency of an established mode of spelling is observable in the various ways in which the same word is spelled. The sound alone appears to have formed the guide, and hence the spelling would be perpetually varying.
- 250. About the seventh century the Saxon language began to be cultivated, and gradually advanced till the age of Alfred, when it may be said to have received its highest polish. The Saxon Alphabet differs from the Latin only in a few characters.

Bosworth mentions the Laws of the Saxon monarchs, Charters, and Chronicles before the time of Athelstan, the works of Alfred, and the translations of the Gospels, as exhibiting the Saxon language in its greatest purity.

Specimens of this period will be found in Boncord's Grammar, Harrison's Rise of the English Language, Webster's Dictionary, and Spatting's Literature.

251. The following words will show the connection of, 1, the Mæso-Gothic, 2, Saxon, and 3, English languages, and the changes which words undergo in the lapse of time:—

1. Maro-Golhic. 2. Saron. 3. English. 1. Maro-Golhic. 2. Saron. 3. English. Eald. Blod, PlooL Ald, Old. Bloth, Silvbr, Scoller, Silver. House. Hus. HE3. Corn. Brother. Kaurn, Gorn, Brothr. Broder, Fish. Sister. Fick, Pisc,

252. One feature in Saxon, forming a marked distinction between it and the Latin language, is its monosyllabic structure. Objects which would in Latin be expressed by words of two or three syllables are generally expressed in Saxon by monosyllables; thus,

Latin. 1. Crinis, 2. Auris, 3. Oculas, 4. Cerrix, 5. Pollex, 6. Sanguis. Suron. 1. Hair, 2. car, 3. cpc, 4. neck, 5. thumb, 6. blood.

The same monosyllabic principle, except in words derived from

foreign languages, is very prevalent in modern English, particularly in the structure of our verbs. Thus, we see, hear, feel, smell, touch; leap, run, walk, jump; swim, dive, sink, drown; smile, strike, pinch; mourn, sigh, laugh, smile, &c.

253. The Anglo-Saxon had, according to some philologists, six declensions, but Dr. Bosworth has reduced these to three. Every noun had, in each number, four cases, the Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative; as,

Sing. N. Smith,
G. Smith-es,
D. Snith-e,
Ac. Smith,
a smith.
Ac. Smith,
a smith.
Ac. Smith-as,
a smith.
Ac. Smith-as,
a smith.
Ac. Smith-as,
a smith.

254. The Genders of the Anglo-Saxon were determined like the Greek, Latin, and French, not only by the signification, but by the termination. In this respect it differed materially from modern English.—The Adjectives also had variable terminations to correspond with their nouns.—The Verbs had only two tenses, but admitted a greater variety of terminations than the modern English verb. In the time of Chaucer, these had begun to assume much of their present form.

For a more extended account of this period, see Harrison's "Rise of the English Language," "Spaiding's Eng. Lit.," and "Marsh's Lectures."

255. Daxish Period: A.D. 800 to 1000.—The Danes, who, for a long time, occupied the Eastern parts of England and Scotland, called from them Danclagh, spoke a language kindred to the Anglo-Saxon. The influence of the Danes on the language of England was not so extensive as many writers have supposed. For, many of the settlers gradually ceased to speak their own language, and acquired that of the natives. Even under the Danish kings, the Anglo-Saxon continued to be used, not only in public Acts and Laws, but in ordinary intercourse. Some words, however, were introduced, and some changes made by the Danes during this period. They introduced a kind of structural change in many of the Saxon words, 1, by substituting one consonant for another; 2, by frequently interchanging the vowels: and 3, by altering or omitting the terminations of many of the words. - Several words of Danish origin still remain; as, Earl, awry, flay, flail, girl, gammer, and a few others, with a few suffixes, as, by or bye denoting a town or village, as, in Whitby.

256. The Norman Period: A.D. 1066 to 1154.—The Normans or Northmen, who, like the Danes, came from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, succeeded in establishing themselves in the Western parts of France. In 912, Charles the Simple, King of France, ceded to Duke Rollo and his Norman followers the province afterwards called from them Normandy. Here, they soon ceased to speak their own language, and adopted the

French, a language formed from the Latin with an admixture of Gothic and some other dialects.-The influence of the Norman French began to be felt in England before the Norman Conquest; for, Edward the Confessor, who followed the Danish Dynasty, and reigned from 1042 to 1065, had spent his youth in Normandy, and, though himself a Saxon, had introduced the Norman language as well as many Norman customs into his court. After his death, Harold succeeded and reigned a short time, but being slain at the battle of Hastings, 1000, William of Normandy ascended the throne. This event not only affected the subsequent history of England, but had an important influence on its language. For, the Saxons for many years after the conquest were not only excluded from all offices of state, and from the higher and most of the inferior ecclesiastical positions of the country, but were deprived of their lands and reduced to poverty. French was the language of the court, the nobility, the landed gentry, and the army, and that in which alone instruction was given in the schools. Latin was the vehicle of nearly all historical writing. The Anglo-Saxon was spoken only by the conquered or lower classes. Nearly a century, however, transpired before any great change became perceptible in the language of the people.

257. a. SEMI-SAXON PERIOD: A.D. 1154 to 1250.—In 1154, on the death of Stephen, the Saxon Chronicle of historical events, hitherto written in the Saxon language, began from this period to be written in what may be termed Semi-Saxon. This is assigned as the Epoch at which the Saxon Language began that Process of Transformation by which it was ultimately changed into English. The changes were not sudden, but gradual.

- b. The following are the principal alterations effected about this period:-
- 1. Many Saxon words were displaced by the introduction of corresponding French-Latin words, by which both the Vocabulary was enriched, and many uncouth words were removed.
- 2. The Orthography of many words was contracted, and the Pronunciation of the vowels and several of the consonants was materially modified.
- 3. Many Terminations, especially of the nouns and verbs, were omitted. Thus, the plurals of some nouns ended in a, others in an, others in as, and others in u; but the Norman mode substituted for these endings s, as the termination of all plural nouns.
 - 4. Less inversion and ellipsis, especially in Pcetry, became general.
- Several terms in Law and Chivalry, derived from the Normans, are still retained; as, Embezzle, fief, feud, baron, bailiff.
- c. In this and in every subsequent period we can only, at this distant date, appeal to the best and most matured specimens of the language as they appear in published documents. The Language of the Common, may of the Middle Class, would evidently be much inferior to what is exhibited in these extracts.
- d. During all these periods and up to Caxton's time (about A.D. 1480, when printing was introduced into England), books were merely Manuscripts, multiplied by the monks or scribes, either by transcription or dictation. These from their fewness were very expensive, and read only by the clergy. From the scarcity of books, too, most of the instruction given in schools was by means of oral communication.

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- L. 44.—258. a. EARLY ENGLISH PERIOD: 1250 to A.D. 1399.—The Early English Period commences in 1250 A.D., when the "Saxon Chronicle" began to change from the Semi-Saxon Language to the Early or Old English. This period extends to the accession of Henry IV., 1399.—After the final loss of Normandy, the nobility and gentry of Norman descent, began to regard the English as their countrymen, rather than their brethren in France. Hence, by degrees, they began to cultivate the English Language, which had hitherto been regarded as a barbarous and meagre idiom, to enrich it by introducing numerous French-Latin words, and, to a great extent, to discard the Anglo-Saxon inflexion as cumbrous and uncouth.
- b. The Ou English Character, or Black Letter, was introduced about 1350, in the reign of Edward III. In the year 1362 the pleadings in the courts of justice were ordered by Edward III. to be conducted in the vernacular or English Language. About this time, also, the practice of making youths translate Latin into Norman-French was discontinued; "so that now," to borrow the words of a writer of that period, John de Trevisa, "the yere of our Lorde 1385, in all the grammere scoles of Engeloud, children leaveth Frensche, and constructh and lerneth in Englische."
- c. The proceedings in Parliament appear to have been conducted in French till the reign of Richard II., when, in 1388, the English was substituted. The public statutes, however, continued to be recorded and published in French till the reign of Richard III. (1483), when that language, except a few legal phrases, ceased entirely to be employed. In the reign of Richard II. (1880) Wyckliffe, with the aid of others, completed his translation of the Bible into English, and towards the close of the century Chaucer gave to the world his celebrated "Canterbury Tales."
- 259. About the time of Chaucer the six declensions of Anglo-Saxon nouns had gradually been reduced to one, and the cases from four to two, the Genitive or Possessive case being formed from the nominative by the addition of es in the singular number. The plural form of the verb (an, en, on) was retained. Numerous words from the French were introduced into English by Chaucer and his contemporaries. Still the tocabulary was poor, the syntax rude, the orthography unsettled, the dialects very various, and the pronunciation, if we may judge from the words, unmelodious.

^{260.} Two Extracts, one from Wycklife's translation of the Testament, about A.D. 1889; and the other from Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, written probably about 1899, will illustrate the language of this period.

a. Wyckliffe's Trans. of Matt. chap. viii. first 4 verses:-

"Forsotho when Jhesus hadde comen donn fro the hil, many cumpanyes folewiden hym. And loo! a leprouse man cummynge worshipide hym, sayinge: Lord, yif thou woit, thou maist make me clone. And Jhesus heldynge forthe the hende, touchide hym, sayinge: I wole; be thou mand clene. And anoon the lepre of hym was cleneid. And Jhesus saith to hym: See, say thou to no man; but go, shewe thee to prestis, and offre that gifte that Moyses commundide, into witnessing to hem."

b. Chaucer's description of the Knight in his Canterbury Tales :-

"A Knight ther was, and that a worthy man, That fro the time that he first began To rider out, he leved chevalrie, Trouthe and honour, freedom and curtesie. Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre; And, thereto hadde he ridden, none more ferre, As wel in Christendom as in Hethenesse, And ever honoured for his worthinesse. But, for to telien you of his arale,—His hors was good, but he ne was not gaic. Of fustian, he wered a gipen Alle besmatred with his habergeon, For he was late young fro his viage, And wente for to don his pligrimage."

261. MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD: 1400 to 1558.—The Middle Period of the English language extended from the commencement of the reign of Henry IV., 1309, to the accession of Elizabeth, 1558. During this period the language, though differing in several particulars from modern English, differs much further in its structural formation from the ancient Anglo-Saxon. The final n of verbs was dropped about the time of Henry VIII.; as, we loven, ye loven, they loven, for we love, ye love, they love. The orthography of the language continued to be irregular, some writers retaining more of the antiquated style than others.—Several Translations of the Bible appeared about this time, as, Tyndale's, Cranmer's, and that called the "Geneva."

262. The Title page of the Book of Common Prayer, published in the time of King Edward VI. in 1552, may serve as a specimen of the language of this period:—

"The Boke of common praier, and the administracion of the sacramentes and other rites and ceremonics in the churche of Englande"; also, "A short Catechism or playne instruction, conteynynge the summe of Christian learninge, sett fourth by the Kingis malesties authoritic, for all scholemaisters to teache."

263. Modern English may be said to date from the accession of Elizabeth, 1558, to the present time; and may conveniently be considered under Six distinct Periods, not that any distinctive change was suddenly effected at any precise time in any one of these periods, but that certain contemporaneous writers gradually produced various modifications either in the structure or vocabulary of the language.

264. THE FIRST MODERN PERIOD commences about 1558, and extends to 1649. At the Revival of Literature many new words were introduced into English from the Latin and Greek.

These in some instances have displaced the old Saxon words, but, in others, serve as a duplicate for expressing the same idea (278). Before the days of Elizabeth our language derived its accessions from the Latin through the medium of the French, but since her time they are derived direct from the Latin. This may account for many words which formerly ended in ant now ending in ent. Unnecessary vowels occurring in Saxon began about this time to be rejected. Though the orthography was still different from the present mode, and the sentences were frequently ill constructed, yet, some standard of conjugation, declension, and syntax was established, and so great an approximation to the present language was made by the writers of this period, that their productions may be perused without difficulty, as may be seen by referring to the works of Shakspeare, Spenser, Bacon, Hooker, &c. In 1611, the authorized version of the Bible was published, which has deservedly had an immense influence not only on the religion, but on the literature of this country. (See First Period under Style, 722.)

265. The following Extracts, the First from Baron's Essays; the Second from Jeremy Taylor's Works, may serve as specimens of this period:—

a. Studies.—"Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them; for they teach not their own use; but that is a wisdom without them, and above them, won by observation. Read not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider. Some books are to be tasted, others to be exallowed, and some few are to be cheefed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made from them by others; but that would be only in the less important arguments, and the meaner sort of books; else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man; and, therefore, if a man write little, he had need have a present wit; and, if he read little, he had need of much cunning, to seem to know that he doth not."—Bacon, b. 1561, d. 1620.

b. The Progress of Sim.—"I have seen the little purls of a spring sweat through the bottom of a bank, and intenerate the stubborn pavement, till it both made it fit for the impression of a child's foot: and it was despiced, like the descending pearls of a misty morning, till it had opened its way and made a stream large enough to carry away the rains of the undermined strand, and to invade the neighbouring gardens; but then the despiced drops were grown into an artificial river, and an intolerable mischief.—So are the first entrances of sin, stopped with the antidotes of a hearty prayer, and checked into solviety by the cyo of a reverend man, or the connects of a single sermon; but when such beginnings are neglected, and our religion hath not in it so much philosophy as to think anything evil so long as we can endure it, they grow up to ulcers and petilential evils; they destroy the soul by their abode, who at their first entry might have been killed with the pressure of a little finger."—Jeremy Taylor, b. 1618, d. 1667.

from 1649 to 1689, comprises, among other great names, the following:—Millon, Dryden, Waller, Cowley, and Locke. These laboured much and systematically to improve the language, adapting it not only to all the purposes of conversation, philosophy, and oratory, but to the full and harmonious

flow of the boldest and most original flights of poetic genius. Hence the orthography becomes less irregular, the expressiveness as well as the euphony of the words becomes more severely tested, and the sentences constructed on a more methodical and perspicuous principle than before. (See Second Period under Style, 723.)

267. The following extracts will tend to illustrate this period:-

- 1. From Millon's Tractate on Education.—"The end of learning is to repair the ruin of our first parents, by regaining to know God aright, and out of that knowledge to love him, to imitate him, to be like him, as we may the nearest by possessing our souls of true virtue, which, being united to the bearenly grace of faith, makes up the highest perfection. But because our understanding cannot in this body found itself, but on sensible things, nor arrive so clearly to the knowledge of God and things invisible, as by orderly conning over the risible and inferior creatures, the same method is necessarily to be followed in discreet teaching."—Millon, b. 1603, d. 1674.
- 2. From Lock?.—Injudicious haste in study condemned.—"The cagerness and strong bent of the mind after knowledge, if not warfly regulated, is often a hindrance to it. It still presses into further discoveries and new objects, and catches at the variety of knowledge, and, therefore, often stays not long enough on what is before it, to look into it as it should, for haste to pursue what is yet ont of sight. He that rides post through a country may be able from the translent view, to tell in general how the parts lie, and may be able from the translent view, to tell in general how the parts lie, and may be able from the ran loose description of here a mountain and there a plain, here a morass and there a river; woodland in one part and savannabs in another. Such superficial ideas and observations as these he may collect in galloping over it; but the more useful observations of the soil, plants, animals, and inhabitants, with their several sorts and properties, must necessarily escape him; and it is seldom men ever discover the rich mines without some digging. Nature commonly lodges her treasures and jewels in rocky ground. If the matter be knotty and the sense lies deep, the mind must stop and buckle to it, and stick upon it with labour and thought, and close contemplation, and not leave it until it has mastered the difficulty, and got possession of truth."—Locke, h. 1632, d. 1704.
- 268. THE THIRD AND FOURTH MODERN PERIODS, extending from 1689 to 1760, comprise, among other writers, the following :- Pope, Addison, Swift, Steele, De Foe, and Young. Though the writers of this period were inferior to their immediate predecessors in originality and vigour of thought, yet they are justly considered as accomplished scholars. exertions our language is much indebted for its improvements, as the just claims of criticism began to be more generally recognised, and the importance of uniformity of orthography and structure more widely appreciated. The mode of expression adopted especially by Swift. Addison, and De Foe is, though frequently loose, remarkably easy and idiomatic, and less disfigured by those awkward inversions which characterised many of their predecessors. With them, also, preference is always given to the employment of words purely Saxon rather than to those of classical origin. Inaccuracies of expression are, doubtless, abundant, but the improvement is decided. The age of Queen Anne has been frequently styled the Augustan period, but to this high distinction an examination of later writers will show that it has no substantial claim. (See Third and Fourth Periods under Style, 724, 725.)

209. The following are specimens of this period :-

1. From the Spectator, by Addition.—"Man, considered in himself, is a very helpless and very wretched being. He is subject every moment to the greatest calamities and misfortunes. He is beset with dangers on all sides, and may become unlarppy by numberless ensualties, which he could not foresee, nor have prevented, had he foreseen them. It is our comfort, wille we are obnazious to so many accidents, that we are under the care of One who directs contingencies, and has in his hand the management of everything that is capable of annoying or offending us; who knows the assistance we stand in need of, and is always ready to bestow it on those who ask it of him.

"The natural homoge which such a creature bears to so infinitely wise and good a Being, is a firm reliance on him for the blessings and conveniencies of life, and an habitnal trust in him for deliverance out of all such dangers and

difficulties as may befall us."-Addison, b. 1672, d. 1719.

2. From Swift.—"A necessary part of good manners is a punctual attendance of time at our own dwellings or those of others, whether upon matter of civility, business, or diversion; which rule, though it be a plain dictate of common reason, yet the greatest minister I ever knew was the greatest trespasser against it; by which all his business doubled on him, and placed him in a compositional arrear. Upon which I often used to rully him, as deficient in point of good manners. I have known more than one ambassador, and secretary of state, with a very moderate portion of intellectuals, execute their offices with good observe time for the service of another, it doubles the obligation; if upon your own account, it would be manifest folly, as well as ingratitude, to neglect it; if both are concerned, to make your equal or inferior ratend on you to his own disadvantage is pride and injustice."—Sein, b. 1607, d. 1744.

270. THE FITTH AND SIXTH MODERN PERIODS extend from 1760 to the present time. During this period, and more especially during the present century, the language has received the serious consideration and sedulous cultivation of many master minds. The affected disparagement of the direct study of its principles by learned pedants is little regarded; while the puerile imitation of a Latin structure becomes less and less admired. Attention is now directed to the utility and significancy of our vocables, as well as to the energy and euphony of the phraseology. Irregularities are ably exposed and gradually rectified. Sounder views of criticism and idiomatic construction are more widely appreciated, and more generally observed. Indeed, it may with justice be asserted, that in fulness and variety of its vocabulary, the English language is now inferior to none. In euphony and delicacy, it may yield to the French and Italian, but it infinitely surpasses these in the higher qualities of strength and expressiveness. (See Fifth and Sixth Periods under Style, 726, 727.)

271. The following extracts will tend to illustrate this period:-

1. Dr. Johnson.—"The truth is, that knowledge of external nature, and the sciences which that knowledge requires or includes, are not the great nor the frequent business of the human mind. Whether we provide for action or conversation, whether we wish to be useful or pleasing, the first requisite is the relicions and moral knowledge of right and wrong; the next is an acquaintance with the history of mankind, and with those examples which may be said to embody truth, and prove by events the reasonableness of opinions. Prudence and justice are virtues and excellencies of all times, and of all places; and we are perpetually meralists, but we are geometricians only by chance. Our intercourse with intellectual nature is necessary; our speculations upon matter are voluntary and at leisure. Physiological learning is of such rare emergence, that one may know another half of his life, without being able to estimate his skill in

hydrostatics or astronomy; but his moral and prudential character immediately appears. Those authors, therefore, are to be read at schools, that supply most axioms of prudence, most principles of moral truth, and most materials for conversation; and these purposes are best served by poets, orators, and historians."—Dr. S. Johnson, b. 1709, d. 1784.

- 2. Sir Walter Scott.—"I shull never forget the delightful sensation with which I exchanged the dark, smoky, smothering atmosphere of the highland but, in which we had passed the night so uncomfortably, for the refreshing fragrance of the morning air, and the glorious beams of the rising sun, which from a taberacele of purple and golden clouds, were darted full on such a scene of natural romance and beauty as had never before greeted my eyes. To the left lay the valley, down which the Forth wandered on its easterly course, surrounding the beautiful detached hill, with all its garland of woods. On the right, amid a profusion of thicketa, knolis, and crags, lay the bed of a broad mountain lake, lightly curled into tiny waves by the breath of the morning breeze, each glittering in its course under the influence of the sunbeams. High hills, rocks and banks, waving with natural forests of birch and oak, form the borders of this enchanting sheet of water; and as their leaves rustled to the wind, and twinkled in the sun, gave to the depth of solitude a sort of light and vivaciv. Man alone seemed to be placed in a state of inferiority, in a scene where all the ordinary features of nature were raised and exalted."—Walter Scott, b. 1771. d. 1832.
- 3. Robert Southey.—"The tithes of the parish were naturally appropriated to its own church. A certain portion of glebe was added, enough to supply the incumbent with those necessaries of life which were not to be purchased in those times, and could not be conveniently received from his parishioners in kind, but not enough to engage him in the business of agriculture; his pursuits, it was justly deemed, ought to be of a higher nature, and his time more worthily employed for himself and others. Without the allednent of a house and glebe, no church could be legally consecrated. The endowment of a full tenth was liberal, but not too large. The greater part of the country was then in forest and waste land, and the quantity of produce no where more than was consumed in the immediate vicinity; for agriculture was no where pursued in the spirit of trade. The parechial priest kept a register of his poor parishioners, which he cailed over at the church door from time to time, and distributed relief to them according to his means, and their individual necessities. But in that state of society the poor were not numerous, except after some visitation of war, in which the minister suffered with his flock; while village and domestic slavery existed, pauperism, except from the consequences of hostile inroads, must have been almost unknown. The cost of hospitality was far greater than that of relieving the poor. The manse, like the monastery, was placed beside the highway, or on the edge of some wild common for the convenience of the pligrim and the stranger."—Southey, b. 1714, d. 1843.

2. ORIGIN OF MODERN ENGLISH WORDS.

LESSONS 46. a. & b.—Exercises 46. a. & b.—Page 38.

L. 46. a.—272. THE SAXON supplies about three-fourths of the vocabulary of the Modern English; thus,

All words denoting the common animals, with their relations, cries, passions, senses, infirmities, motions, &c. are purely Saxon; as, Man, woman, father, mother, child, brother, sister; dog, horse, cow, pig, duck; laugh, weep, cry, groan, smile; love, hate, fear, see, hear, touch, smell, taste, blind, lame, deaf, dumb; walk, leap, run, jump, swim, float, dive, sink, neigh, bark, low, squeak, &c.

The common objects of nature are Saxon, such as, sun, moon, stars, air, rain, water, clouds, grass, corn, hay, wheat, rye. So are our articles of ordinary food; as, bread, fowl, fish, flesh:—of fuel; as, coal, wood, peat, turf;—the common arts, employments, and dignities of life; as, read, write, teach; farmer, miller, seaman; king, earl, &c.—Also the articles, pronouns, many of the adjectives and adverbs, the irregular verbs, the prepositions, and conjunctions are all Saxon.

273. Many of our Saxon words have, in the lapse of time, undergone several modifications from the original Spelling. The following are a few instances:—

TH9 10110	The following are a few instances:—						
1. Common O'fects;							
English.	Siron.	English.	Saxon.	English.	Saron.		
Anvil,	Anfill.	Calf.	Calf.	Fly.	Fleoge.		
Alms,	Einesc.	Cheese,	Cyre.	Gospel,	Godspell.		
Apple,	Æpel.	Churl,	Ceorle.	Ground,	Grand.		
Arm,	Larm.	Clover,	Claefre.	Head.	Heafod.		
Led,	Redde.	Day,	Daeg.	Heart,	Heorte.		
Blood,	Blod	Door,	Dora.	Heaven,	Heofen.		
Book,	Boc.	Earth,	Eorthe.	Home,	Haem.		
Brook,	Broc.	Evening,	Æim.	Houze,	Hus.		
	ns and Occupat	ion±;					
Alderman,		Daughter,	Dobter.	Knight,	Cynight.		
Bishop,	Bisceop.	Father.	Facder.	Lord,	Blaford.		
Child,	Ciid.	King,	Cyning.	Mother.	Moder.		
	of Places;-			,			
Engl		Sixon.	Englis	rh Ca	ron.		
Bath	Eat	hanceaster.	. Canterb		araburh.		
Brist	ol, Bri	stow.	Nortolk	North			
4. Terts;	-						
Am,	Eom.	Bless,	Blissian.	. 7711	~		
Ask.	Acrian.	Buy	Bregan.	Fill,	Fyllan.		
Be,	Beon.	Can,	Cannan,	Go, Kiss,	Gan.		
Pour,	Bacran,	Come,	Cuman.	Learn,	Cassan.		
•		,	r Cumuna	f treatile	Lacran.		
			-				

Ostrea,

Latin.

Actio,

hultre,

French.

action,

•	шол) 131(1 131(1	Janen 11	Ombs. [1	Lesson 40. u.	
5. Pronouns;						
English. Sa:		ist. Camen	Franks.	~	17-1 G	
I, I			English.		lieh. Saxon. Hire.	
Thon, I	hu. It,	Hit.	Thy,	Thin. Our		
	ic. The		His,	His. You		
220,	, 2	,,	,,	111111	1, 10,,,,,	
6. Adjecti	ves;					
English.	Saxon.	English.	Saxon.	English.	Saxon.	
Blue,	Bleo.	Dear,	Deor.	Long,	Lang.	
Brown,	Brun.	Evil,	Efel.	Most,	Maest.	
Cold,	Ceald.	Good,	God.	Strong,	Strang.	
7. Numer	w1e					
		1 Milana	fr.		771.0	
One,	An.	Three,	Three.	Five,	Fif.	
Two,	Twa.	Four,	Feower.	l Eight,	Eahta.	
8. Advert	s, Prepositions	. Conjunctions	·			
Above,	On-bufan.	At,	ÆŁ	No, .	Na.	
Almost,	Ealmaest.	Ever.	Æfer.	Over,	Ofer.	
Also,	Ælswa.	Ever, Never,	Nacfre.	Through,	Thurh.	
•		•				
274. T	he next pri	ncipal sour	ce to which	the Englis	h Language	
in indeht	ad is the	Tatin Tan	auaae T	nig gither	directly or	
is mucui	27 27	LAUGUE LAGI	Tr. 1	1	directly of	
tnrougn	the mediu	m of the	rrencu,	nas suppin	ed us with	
thousand	s of words	expressive	e of the r	noral affect	ions, intel-	
· lootnal fi	inctions of	strant rale	tions arts	emannaa	and general	
		Jamaor Ica	enono, ara	, economic ,	and Scholar	
Literatur	e.	•				
		T TO 1				
275. 1	ne Latin.—	-1. Refore	the Age of	Elizabeth I	nany words	
were into	were introduced from the Latin, through the medium of the					
Franch	Thorn con	orolla unde	mmont con	o modifica	tion. First	
T. I GILCIL.	Tuese Ren	crairy unite	I WELL BOIL	inomiter	non. Then	
from the	Latin int	o French,	and then	from the J	French into	
English.	The follo	wing are tl	ie principa	l changes v	which Latin	
Trorde un	derwent in	their trans	ition to F	rench :		
words an	der went m	their train	erción to r	I CHIOIL		
1. By Ap	ocope, or cutti	ng off from the	e end : as.			
Latin.	French.	English.	Latin.	French.	English.	
Abstrūsus,		Abstruse.	Porcus,	porc.	pork.	
Accessus,		access.	Finire,	finir,	finish.	
Appellare,		appeal.	Solum,	fol.	soil.	
Arcus,		arch.	Sonus,	eon,	sound.	
Benltas,		bounty.	Remediu	n, remède,	remedy.	
0 77 0	107.mm on audi	inn and faces	the middle m	and and a star and		
				irticularly wh	en <i>c, d, g,</i> or <i>l</i>	
-	d or followed		-	77	79 . 27 2	
Latin.	French.	English.	Latin.	French.	English.	
Amgure,	amer,	euj. ernol	Fragilis, Invidere,	frêle,	frail.	
Oracens,	doubler.	donble.	Magister,	envier, maître,	envy. master.	
Totoper	entière.	entire.	Periculun	n, péril,	peril.	
Frigere.	allier, cruel, doubler, entière, frire,	fry.	Securus,	eûr,	eure.	
			•	•		
•	ostričsis, or p	-			•	
Oleum,		oil.	Echola,	école,	school.	
Oxtron	hultre.	syster.	i Statu∗.	etat.	estate	

Mors, mort, death. Sol, soleil, fun. 5. By METATHESIS, or the transposition of one or more letters; as, Stagnum, Pungens, poignant, poignant. étang, stagnant,

Status,

Pars,

Latin.

ctat,

French.

partie,

estate.

English.

part.

oyster.

English.

action.

4. By PARAGO'GE, or adding a letter or syllable; as,

6. By the change of Vowels and Diphthongs; as,

loi, Lex, law. cross. CTOIX. Crux. noix. nut. Dignari, daigner, deign. Nux. Populus, peuple, people. grain, grain. Granum, hour. Vox. voix. voice. heure. Нога, 7. By the change of Consonants; as, chanter, chant. nigle, eagle. Cantare, Agulla, grace. grace, Grafia, Carca, ca7e, cage. Jungere, joindre, join. grotte, grot. Crypta, Granum, glaner, glean. bricf. Breris, bre/, charme, charm. Salvāre. Enuver. eave.

S. By Epenthesis, or the insertion of letters; as,
Campaneus, campagne, campaign. | Humilis, humble, humble.
Genère, genre, gender. | Montánus, montagne, mountain.

276.—2. Since the time of Elizabeth, Latin words have been derived direct from that language. In these instances, also, the Latin primitive frequently undergoes some alteration, either, 1, by abridging the Infinitive, as in Concurrere, concur; or 2, the Supine; as in Actum, act; or 3, by a change of vowels; as in Scando, ascend.

Latin Root and Meaning. English Derivatives. Ago, I do, actum, donead, action, actor, actual, exact. Astimo, I valuoesteem, estimable, estimate, estimation. Anima, breath, lifeanimal, animalcule, animate. Annus, a yearannals, annuity, annual, biennial. Aqua, wateraqueous, aquatic, aqueduct, terraqueous. Ars, artis, skillartist, crtisan, artificial, artiul. Capul, capilis, the headcapital, cape, capiain, chapter.
Caro, carnis, fleshcarnal, carnival, incarnation, carnivorous. Centrum, a middle pointcentre, central, concentrate, Corpus, corporal, a bodycorporal, corporal, corpse. Cruz, crucis, a crosscrucity, crucifix, crusade. Cura, care.....cure, curable, curate, curious. Dens, dentis, a tooth dentist, dentifrice, indent. Dies, a daydary, diurnal, dial, dialling. Dignus, worthydignity, dignify, indignant. Durus, hard, lastingduring, durable, endure. Fortis, brave, strongfortitude, fortify, force, fortress. forlitude, jui Frons, the forehand frontispiece. Fructus, fruit ge, fruition. Fundo, fusus, tc .

2. 46. b.—277.—3. In many instances, these Latin Derivatives have displaced the corresponding Saxon words, as in the following instances:—

Latin Deriv. Saxon. Latin Deriv. Sazon. Authority, Anweald. Lunatic, Month-sick. Circumference, Ambegang. Medicine, Leach-craft. Disciple, Leorning-entht. Marriage, Gyfla. Farmer, Earth-ling. Scribe. Docere. Judge, Doomsman. Sepulchre, Byrgen.

278.—4. In other instances, there are two sets of Derivative words, expressive of the same thing, or nearly so, the one of Saxon, the other of Latin origin; thus:—

Latin. Saxon. Saxon. Latin. Anger. Ire. Feather, Plume. Building, Edifice. Freedom. Liberty. Boldness, Audacity. Foresight, Prudence. Bolily, Corporeal. Fatherly, , Paternal. Brotherly, Fleshly, Fraternal. Carnal Fewness, Paucity. Hearty, Handbook, Cordial. Fearful, Timid. Manual. Feeling, Sentiment. Kindness, Benignity.

279.—5. English Noims, again, are frequently of Saxon origin, while the corresponding Adjectives are derived from the Latin; thus:—

Захоп Хоип. Latin Adjective. From. Being, Essential. Esce. Sanguis. Blood, Sanguine, Rural, Rustic, Country, Rus. Cour, Vaccine, Vacca. Degree, Gradual, Gradus. Dog, Canice Canis. Eye, Octilus. Ocular, Hearing, Audible, Audio. Domus. House, Domestic. Mens. Radir. Mind. Mental, Radical, Root. Storm, Tempestuous, Tempestas. Real, Thing, Res. Dens. Tooth, Dental.

280.—6. a. Other Nouns of Saxon origin have two sets of Adjectives, one derived from the noun itself, the other from the Latin; thus:—

3. Latin Adjective. 2. Saron Adjedice. 4. From. Saxon Koun. Blood, Bloody, Sanguine, Sanguis. Boy, Brother, Boyish. Prerile, Paer. Brotherly, Fraternal, Frater. Body, Polily, Corporeal, Согрш. Onerous, Burden, Burdensome, Omus. Day, Daily, Diurnal, Dies. Fatherly, Paternal, Pater. Father. Fear, Pearful, Timorous, · Timor. Friend, Friendly, Amicable, Amious. Heart, Hearty, Helpful, Cordial. Cor. Auxilium. Help, Anziliary, Vital. Life, Lively. Tita. Kingly, Rex. King, Rem! Mother, Motherly, Maternal. Mater. Nocturnal, Night, Nightly, Nor. Woman, Womanly, Feminine, Femina.

b. The Latin also supplies the English with numerous Prefixes or particles which are employed to vary the sense of the words to which they are prefixed; thus, im, not, in im-mortal. See Prefixes, 286.

281. The Greek Language, which possesses great power in forming Compounds, has also furnished the English not only with many Prefixes, but with numerous appropriate and significant Terms in mathematics, medicine, botany, chemistry, and

the Arts and Sciences in general. A few Greek Derivatives are subjoined:—

Air (ang) the sir

Anglos (argrafos) a mesenger angel, arch-angel, evangeline.

Anthropos (arboros) a man anthropology, misanthropo.

Biblos (Biblos) a book Biblo, bibliography, bibliopolist.

Chronos (peoros) time chronic, chronicle, chronology.

Biblos (Biblos) a book Biblo, bibliography, bibliopolist.

Chronos (peoros) time chronic, chronicle, chronology.

Biblos (Biblos) a book Biblo, bibliography, bibliopolist.

Chronos (peoros) time chronic, chronicle, chronology.

Biblos (biblos) bibliopolist.

Chronos (peoros) time chronic, chronicle, chronology.

Granma (papula) a letter granmar, anagram, diagram.

Graphs (papula) a letter granmar, anagram, diagram.

Graphs (papula) a letter granmar, anagram, diagram.

Hudder (bibl) water legioneter, hierarchy, hieroglyphic.

Hudder (biblos) water legioneter, hierarchy, hieroglyphic.

Hudder (biblos) order, the world. cosmetic, cosmoginy.

Kardios (sogues) order, the world. cosmetic, cosmoginy.

Kardios (sogues) order, the world. cosmetic, cosmoginy.

Logos (kogues) a word logic, apology, analogy, chronology, dialogue,

Martur (papura) a witness martyr, martyrdom, martyrology.

Martur (papura) a witness martyr, martyrdom, martyrology.

Martur (papura) a witness martyr, martyrdom, martyrology.

Martur (papura) a measure chronomeler, homostic, monopoly.

Nones (vance) a law astronomy, Deuteronomy, economy.

Odi (with) an odarcy papula exist ment. organ, organles, inorganle.

Orthos (codes) rill exist orthodox, orthology, orthography.

Pas, pantes (car, stogy) life first orthology, pathology, path

- 282. In addition to Their and Greek, the English Language has borrowed numerous ringle Terms and Phrases from the following:—
- a. Modern French has supplied many words used in Military affairs; as, aide-de-camp, bayonet, bicouac;—in Dress; as, rest, blonde;—in Manners, &c.; as, etiquette, naïveté, foible, éclat, ennui, soirée.
- b. The Italian has supplied several terms relating to Music, Sculpture, and Painting; as, piano, adagio, tenor, mezotinto, fresco, cameo, virtuoso, profile, studio, &c.
- c. Modern German, Flemish, 2nd Dutch have supplied several manufacturing, mercantile, and naval Terms; such as, Cambric, cantas, cable, fluke, keel, cloop, yacht, &c.
 - d. The Spanish and Portuguese have furnished a few; ns, Admiral, alcore, barilla, cigar, junto, castanet, lugoon, albino, alligator, calabash, cargo, embargo, &c.
 - c. America has supplied several terms; as, Cannibal, potato, tobacco, tomahawk, wigwam, &c.
 - f. Asia, in consequence of our extensive dependencies there, has also supplied several; as, Alcohol, koran, coffee, calico, rhubarb, bamboo, rajah, junk, &c.

- g. Places frequently supply terms; as, Sherry from Xerez; port from Oporto. The same may be said of Persons; as, Voltaism from Volta; daguerreotype from the discoverer, Daguerre.
 - h. New Terms are occasionally introduced as necessity may suggest.—The total vocabulary of English words may amount to 90,000, or 100,000.

3. PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.

LESSONS 47, 48.—Exercises 47, 48.—Page 39.

- L. 47.—283. PREFIXES AND AFFIXES.—One chief means of forming English words from one another is by attaching to the root, or essential part of the word, certain prefixes and affixes.
- 284. a. A Prefix is a particle placed before a root to vary its sense; as, im in the word immortal, over in overcome.
- b. An Affix, or termination, is a particle added to the root to vary its signification; as, ish and fill in whitish, joyful.
- c. Prefixes are generally prepositions, and are of great diversity of origin.
- 285. a. Saxon Prefixes.—The prefixes, which are of a purely English or Saxon origin, are, a, be, for, fore, mid, mis, over, out, un, under, up, with. These prefixes are usually called inseparable prepositions, from their never being used single or uncompounded.
 - b. A signifies on or in; as, ashore, that is, on shore.

Be eignifies about; as, bestir, that is, stir about;—also for or before; as, bespeak, that is, to speak for or before. It has also several other meanings.

For denies; as, bid forbid.

Fore signifies before; as, see, foresee.

Mid significs middle; as, mid-day.

Mis signifies defect or error; as, take, mutake.

Over denotes superiority or excess; as, come, overcome; done, overdone.

Out signifies excess or superiority; as, run, outrun.

Un, before an adjective, signifies not; as, worthy, unworthy; before a verb it signifies the undoing of the act expressed by the verb; as, tie, untie.

Under signifies beneath; as, underline.

Up denotes motion upward; as, start, upstart;—and also, subversion; as, set, upset.

Will signifies against, from; as, stand, withstand; draw, withdraw.

286. Latin Prefixes.—The following Prefixes are derived from the Latin, and have the annexed signification:—

A, ab, or abs, signifies from or away; as, abstract, to draw away.

Ad signifies to, at; as, adjoin, to join to; (Ad assumes different forms according to the first letter of the root to which it is prefixed; as, ascend, accede, affect, aggieve, &c.)

Ambi, from ambo, both, signifies double; as, ambiguous.

Ante eignifies before : thus, antedate, to date before.

Bene signifies good, well; as, benevolent, well disposed.

Bi or bis means two or twice; as, bisect, to cut into two parts.

Circum signifies round, about; as, circumnavigate, to sail round.

Cis significs on this side; as, cis-alpine, on this side the Alps.

Con, con, co, or col, signifies together; as, convoke, to call together.—Co is used before a rovel; as, co-equal; con before a consonant; as, contemporary.

Contra and contro signify against; as, contradict, to speak against; (contra is sometimes changed into counter; as, counteract.)

De signifies of, from, or down; as, dethrone, to drive from the throne.

Di or dis, dis, signifies asunder; as, distract, to draw asunder. It also signifies negation or undoing; as, disober, not to obey.

E, ex, signify out of; as, elect, to choose out of.

Equi signifies equal; as, equidistant, at an equal distance.

Extra signifies out of, beyond; as, extraordinary, beyond the ordinary course.

In, im, il, ir, before an adjective, serves as a negative; as, active, inactive; immortal, not mortal; illegal, not legal;—before a verb, in signifies in or into; as, include, to close in.

Inter signifies between; as, interveno, to come between.

Intro signifies to, within; as, introduce, to lead in.

Juria signifies nigh to; as, juriaposition, placed near to.

Mal or male (from malus, bad) signifies ill or bad; as, malcontent, discontented.

Hanu (from manus, a hand) signifies with or by the hand; as, manuscript, any thing written by the hand.

Multi eignifies many; as, multiform, having many forms.

Non, not; as, non-resident.

Ob significs opposition; as, obstacle, something standing in opposition; (ob has the various forms of oc, of, op; as, occur, &c.)

Omni signifies all; as, omnipotent, all powerful.

Per signifies Grough or thoroughly; as, perfect, that is, thoroughly done,

Post signifies after; as, postscript, after the writing,

Prae or fre signifies before; as, prevent, to go before; hence, to stop.

Pro signifies forth or forwards; as, promote, to move forwards,

Protein or preter signifies past or beyond; as, preternatural, beyond the course of nature.

Re eignifies again or back; as, regain, to gain back.

Reiro signifies backwards; us, refrograde, going backwards.

Se signifies apart or without; as, secrete, to hide, to put aside.

Sine eignifies without; as, sinecure, without care or labour.

Silder eignifies under; as, subterluge, a flying under or beneath, an evasion. Sub, sue, sur, sug, sup,—under; as, subscribe, to write under. Super signifies above or over; as, superscribe, to write above or over.

Trans signifies over, from one place to another; as, transport, to carry over.

Ulira, -beyond; as uliramontane, beyond the mountains, -extreme,

The inseparable prepositions are sometimes improperly used; thus, disannul, sometimes used for annul, unloss for losse, &c.

287. Greek Prefixes.—The following are the Prefixes of Greek origin, with their import:—

A or an (a, av) signifies privation or without; as, anonymous, without a name.

Amphi (au4.) signifies both or the two; as, amphibious, that is, having two lives, or capable of living both on land and in water.

Ana (ara) signifies through or up; as, anatomy, a cutting through or up.

Anti (arr.) signifies against; as, antichristian, against Christianity; (Anti is sometimes contracted into ant; as, antarctic, opposite the arctic.)

Apo $(a\pi o)$ signifies from; as, apogee, from the earth; (Apo is sometimes contracted into ap; as, aphellon, away from the sun.)

Arc (apxos), first, chief; as, arch-angel, an angel of the first order.

Auto (autos), self; as, autograph, one's own handwriting.

Cata (xara), down; as, catalogue, a list.

Dia (&a) signifies through; as, diameter, a measure through.

Epi (est) signifies upon; as, epidemic, upon the people.

En (ev), in, on; as, encomium.

Eu (ev), well; as, euphony, an agreeable sound.

Hemi (ήμι), half; as, hemisphere, half a sphere.

Helero (erepos), different; as, helerodox.

Hyper (inep) signifies over, above; as, hypercritical, over or too critical.

Hupo (ino) signifies under, implying concealment; as, hypocrite, a person concealing his real character.

Meta (µera' signifies change, transmutation; as, metamorphosis, a change of shape.

Mono (povos) signifies single; as, monosyllable, one syllable.

Para (zapa) signifies beyond, on one side; as, paradox, an opinion beyond or contrary to the general opinion.

Peri (περι) signifies about; as, periphrasis, a speech in a roundabout way, a circumlocution.

Poly (nolvs) signifies many; as, polysyllable, a word of many syllables.

Syn (our) signifies with, together; as, synod, meeting together. (Syn has also the forms sy, syl, sym; as, system, syllogism, sympathy.)

1. 48.—288. Affixes.—The following Affixes are those which most frequently occur:—

1. Those which denote the agent or doer of a thing are,

An, as in	Guardian.	Er, male doer,	Baker.
Ant.	Assistant.	Ess, female docr,	Governess.
$\Delta \tau$,	Beggar.	Ist, as in	Conformist.
Ard.	Dotard.	Ire.	Operatire.
Ary,	Adversary.	Or,	Inspector.
Eer,	Charioteer.	Ster,	Punster, spinster.
Fnt	. Adherent	•	

2. Those denoting the person acted upon are,

Ale, as in Potentale. Ile, as in Ec, Assignee.

Favourile.

Acy, as in	wing denote being or state of Piracy. Bondage.	Mony, as in	Acrimony. Acuteness.
Arce or ancy,	Repentance, Flagrancy. Adherence, Emergency.	Ry,	Rivalry.
Ence or ency,		Ship,	Friendship.
Hood,	Boyhood.	Th,	Depth.
Ion,	Exhaustion.	Tade,	Aptitude.
Iem,	Despotism.	Ty or ity,	Loyalty, Durability.
Ment,	Achievement	Ure,	Disclosure.

- 4. Dom and ric denote furishiction or office; as, in Kingdom, Bishopric, Earldom.
- 5. Cle, kin, let, ling, and ock, are diminutive terminations; as, in Corpuscle, Lambkin, Streamlet, Duckling, Hillock.
- 6. Ac, al, an, ar, ary, en, ic, ital, id, ile, ine, and ary, denote of or pertaining to; as, in Elector, Antumnal, Republican, Consular, Momentary, Wooden, Angelic, Canonical, Frigid, Infantile, Adamantine, Explatory.
- 7. Ale, ful, ose, our, some, y, denote full of or abundance; as, in Affectionate, Hopeful, Globose, Hazardous, Gladsome, Pithy.
 - 8. Ich, like, ly, signify likeness or manner; as, in Childish, Saintlike, Maldenly.
- 9. Ice, able, and ille, denote capacity; as, in Communicative, Profitable, Contemptible.
- 10. Less denotes privation; ith, added to Adjectives, denotes a small degree of anything; as, in Artless, Blackish.
- 11. Ale, en. fy, ise, ish, ise, denote to make; as, in Allenate, Brighten, Justify, Epitomise, Finish, Methodise.
- 12. Ly denotes like; as, in Kindly. Ward signifies in the direction of; as, in Homeward.
- 280. Composition of Modern English Words are derived from each other in a variety of ways:—
- 1. Sometimes the nown forms the root, from which are derived Adjectives and Verbs: thus,

Noun.	Derivative Adjective.	Verb.
Courage, Hand,	Courageous,	Encourage.
	Handy,	Handle.
Traitor, Society.	Traitorons,	Betray.
society,	Social,	Associate.

2. Sometimes the Verb is the root, and supplies norms and adjectives: thus,

tero.	Deritalite Noun.	Adjedire.
Expend,	Expense.	Expensive.
Compare,	Comparison,	Comparative
Excel.	Excellence.	Excellent
Agree,	Agreement,	Agreeable.
		-

 Sometimes from Verbs are derived the names of the agent or doer and of the thing; thus,

Verb.	Person or Agent.	Thing.
Think, Grow.	Thinker,	Thought.
Speak.	Grower, Speaker,	Growth.
Strike,	Striker,	Speech. Stroke.

1. Sometimes from Past Participles are formed nouns; thus,

			Total Partition	· nomia,
Part Participle. Joined, Flower,	Norm. Joint. Flood.	-	Part Participle. Deserved, Weighed,	Noun. Desert. Weight.



5. Sometimes the old Third Person Singular is contracted in the formation of certain nouns; thus,

Past Participle. Koun. Past Participle. Koun.

Breatheth, Breath. Healeth, Health.

Girdeth, Girth. Stealeth, Stealth.

6. From Adjectives are sometimes formed nouns and verbs, either by affixes or prefixes; thus,

Adjective. Derivative Noun. Verb.
Sweet, Sweetness, Sweeten.
Quick, Quickness, Quicken.
Suro, Suroly. Ensure.

7. a. Some nouns are formed from adjectives by contraction; thus,

Length, from long; breadth, from broad; sloth, from slow.

- Others are formed from the union of two nonns; as, Moon-light; Corn-field;
 Silver-smith.
- 8. The different parts of speech are formed from each other either by prefixes or affixes, as will be seen from the following examples:—

Please.—Please, displease—rerbs.

Pleasing, pleasant, pleasurable, unpleasing, unpleasant, displeasing-adjectives.

Pleasure, displeasure-subst. of the feeling.

Pleasantry, pleasantness-subst. of the thing fell.

Pleasantly, unpleasantly—adverts.

Fil.—Fit, befit, misit, refit, unfit—terks, Filmess, fitter, outfit, unfitness—nouns. Fitting, unfitting, befitting—adjectives. Fitly, unfitly, befittingly—adverbs.

- 9. Words derived from each other, however different they may be as to the class to which they belong, are always, more or less, allied in signification; thus, please, the verb; pleasure, pleasurableness, the nouns; pleasur, pleasurable, the adjectives; and pleasurable, pleasurable, the adverbs, though different in their application, and modified in their meaning by the changes which they undergo, yet are all expressive of the same leading idea.
- 290. Rule for the Pronunciation of Compounds.—It must be observed that the long sounds in simple words generally become short in the Compounds; thus, Vine, vineyard; clean, cleanly; dear, dearth; chaste, chastity; fore, forehead; holy, holiday; please, pleasant.

4. PRIMARY SIGNIFICATION OF WORDS.

LESSONS 49. a. & b.—Exercises 49. a. & b.—Page 41.

291. a. On the Affinity of Words.—The leading Principles which determine the Affinity of Words in respect of origin, are identity of letters (or letters of the same organ), and identity of signification, that is, a signification obviously deducible from the same sense. Letters of the same organ are letters or articulations formed by the same parts of the mouth; thus, b, m, and p are formed by the lips alone; f and v are formed by the lips with the assistance of the upper teeth. Letters of the same organ are commutable, that is, they are, in derivation, frequently interchanged, the one for the other.—Wester.

- b. "When two or more languages employ the same words to express the most familiar objects and the most simple ideas, when they possess the same numerals, the same pronouns, and the same system of grammatical inflexion, these languages were originally one and the same, or derived from a common parent."—Dr. W. Smith, in March's Lect.
- 292. All words were at first used only in one sense, yet, from various causes, they are now frequently employed in very different acceptations. Though a word can have only one primary, it may have several secondary meanings. The Primary meaning of a word, when discovered, furnishes a key by which the remotest of its Secondary meanings can be explained.

Thus, Heat and Hate, though at present very differently applied, are radically the same word, being derived from the Saxon root, halian. Pity and Piety are both derived from pietas; Property and Propriety from proprius, special; Patron and Pattern from pater.

293. Many words retain their Primary or original sense, along with a Secondary meaning; thus:

Word.	Primary Meaning.	Secondary Meaning.
Craft	trade in which one is skilled	artifice.
Charity	love, affection	almsgiving.
	to write or place on the back o	
Impertinent	not pertaining to the subject	rade.
Nervous	strong, vigorous	weak, easily agitated.
Offend	to cause to err	to displease, injure.
Prevent	to go before	to stop, hinder.
Reveal	draw back the vell	to disclose something.

204. Other words, on the contrary, have lost their primary, and retain merely a Secondary meaning;—thus:

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Word. Present Meaning. Original Meaning.
Absurd foolish, inconsistent one deaf, not attending.
Antic odd, ridiculous Antiques, old, ancient.
Boor a rude fellow a farmer.
Cloum a vulgar person Colonus, a colonist, settler.
Cloum caty, artful Cunnan, knowing, well-instructed.
Grenadier a tall soldier one employed in throwing grenades.
Humility lowly minded meanness of spirit.
Idioi weak of intellect one not in office, a private person.
Knare a scoundrel, a cheat a lad or attendant.
Leted vicked, dissolute Lay, not clerical.
Historian a vile wretch no misbeliever.
Pagan a worshipper of false gods. Pagini, dwellers in villages.
Religious one devoted to religion one bound hy monastic vows, a monk.
Silly foolish, weak of intellect innocent.
Tinsel specious, nothing worth Eticelle, anything that sparkles.
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- 295. Words pass from Original to Secondary applications according to the following Rules:—
- 1. Words primarily denoting either Matter, or some Action, are applied to Mental or Moral Qualities;—thus:

Callous, unfeeling; from Callus, hardened by being long trodden.
Conflict, mental or moral struggle; from a striving together of focs in battle.
Delirium, an alienation of mind; from a person's deviating, de, from, lira, a
straight furrow.

Harce, waste, devastation; from harce, a hawk, a rapacious bird. Humour, state of mind; from Humere, to be moist, damp.

Rarenous, greedy; from Raren, a greedy bird. Sanguine, ardent; from Sanguir, blood.

Sincere, honest, pure; from sine cerd, without wax, thus, pure, unalloyed honey.

2. Words are transferred from one object to another which has some resemblance to the former; thus:

Albion, from albus, white, applied to England, from the white cliffs on the coasts.

Dandelion, dent-de-lion, from its supposed resemblance to the tooth of the Hon.

Florida, one of the United States, so called from the flowers found there.

Granile, a stone spotted as if with grains, from granum. Indentation, from in, dens, a tooth, a jutting out like teeth. Meander, to turn or wind, from Meander, a river in Phrygia. Pike, a voracious fish, so named from the sharpness of its snont. Slerra, from Serra, a saw, applied to the mountain ridges of Spain.

3. Generic Words sometimes become Specific; and Specific words sometimes Individual: thus:

Bible, formerly applied to any book, is now restricted to the Sacred Scriptures. Deist, formerly meant one who believed in God; now is applied to one who does not believe in revelation.

- b. Under this class may be included Proper Names which are formed from the following:-
 - Towns and Localities; —Kingston, Bridges, Hill, Mountain, Park. &c.
 Occupations; —Smith (the smiter); Jenner (the joiner); Mason, Miller, &c.
 Field-sports; —Fisher, Hanter, Hawker, Falconer, &c.
 - 4. Offices and Dignities: -King, Prince, Earl, Lord, Yeoman, &c. 5. The Church: -Bishop, Parsons, Priest, Clark, &c.

6. The State;—Chancellor, Mayor, Reeves, Franklin.
7. Personal and Mental Qualities;—Black, Strong, Armstrong, Swift, Meek.
8. Natural Objects;—Buck, Hart, Lamb, Bullock, Heron, &c.
9. Weather;—Frost, Snow, Storm, Gale, Tempest.

- 10. Peculiarities: Crookshanks, Longshanks, Gosling, Blood. 11. From Christian Names; -Adamson, Thomson, Harrison. Christian names are significant; thus, Alfred, all-peace.
- 4. Specific Words, on the other hand, sometimes become General: thus:

Present Meaning, General. Original Specific Meaning. Bacchanalian .. revelling, intemperate .. from Bacchus, the god of wine. Damask stuff with raised figures .. from Damascus, where it was originally made.

Epicurean indulger in luxuries. from Epicurus, who taught pleasure to

be the chief good. Frank......free, condidfrom the Franks, a German tribe who conquered France.

Grotesqueirregular in formfrom the figures found in grottes. Herculean ... of gigantic strength ... from Hercules, a Grecian hero, celebrated for his strength and labours.

Laconicbrief, concisefrom Laconia, the country of the Spartans, a silence-loving race.

5. Words owe their Secondary Sense to purely Accidental Associations: thus:

Candidate, a seeker of an office; from Candidus, white, the colour of the tunics worn by Romans seeking the suffrages of the people. Copy, transcript, pattern, from copie, abundance, then facility.

Gazette, a newspaper; from gazetta, a piece of coin, the price of the news. Rivals, opponents; from Rivales, dwellers on the opposite banks of the same

Taudry, ridiculously showy; from St. Audrey's day, when all kinds of frippery and trinkets were sold.

296. a. Many Derivatives have undergone a change in the Spelling; thus:

Modern Spelling. Original. Modern Spelling. Original. Quelque-choses. El-la-garto. Kickshaw Alligator Landscape Landskip. Camlet Camelot. Market Mercat. Curiew Couvre-feu. Nose-thrill. Compatible Competible. Nostril One-ly. Only Coffee, tea Caffé, tè. Palsy Paralysy. Daffodil D'asphodéle. Sheriff Shire-recre. Daisy Day's eye. Couvre chef. Kerchief Vinegaz Vin-aigre.

b. Others have changed their Accents; thus:

Acad'emy from Academia. Na'ture from Natura. The aire from Theatre. Vention from Venation.

297. Sometimes there are two words spelled and pronounced the same, but of different origin. These are called *Homonyms*, from (opurryos, homonumos) the same name; thus:

- Had, an army; from Hostis, an enemy.
 Host, the Romtsh sacrifice of the mass; from hostis, a victim.
- League, a treaty; from ligare, to bind. League, a measure of distance.
- 3. Riddle, a sieve; from reticulum, a little net-Riddle, an enigma; from Saxon rae dels

PART III.—SYNTAX.

LESSON 50. a.—Exercise 50. a.—Page 47.

- 298. Syntax explains the Agreement, Government, Connection, and proper Arrangement of words in a sentence.
 - 299. a. A Sentence is a collection of words so arranged as to express one Complete Thought or Proposition.
- b. Every Sentence consists of two parts,—the Subject and the Predicate. The Subject is the thing of which we are speaking, and is always the Nominative Case, or equivalent to a Nominative Case.—The Predicate is that which we say or affirm respecting the Subject, and is expressed by the Verb; thus, in the clauses, "John runs," "The boy is industrious," John and boy are the Subjects:—runs and is industrious are the Predicates.
- c. When the Verb affirming or denying is transitive, it is necessary to employ a noun or pronoun to denote the object affected, and thus, to complete the sentence; as, "Industry (Subject) procures (Predicate) competence" (the Object). The Subject, Predicate, and Object combined, form a sentence.
- d. When some tense of the verb To Bs is used, it forms in Grammar, a part of the Predicate; and can be used—1. With an Adjective; as, "The earth is globular."—2. With a Noun in the Nominative; as, "Charles was the king."—3. With a Phrase or Adverb; as "He is of opinion." "He was there."—In the sentence, "Great is the Lord; "Lord is the Subject, is great, the Predicate.—Adjuncts are words employed to explain or modify the meaning either of Subject or Object.
- e. In Logic, a sentence consists of three parts,—1. The Subject, which includes the Nominative and all its Adjuncts.—2. The Copula, which is some tense of the verb to be, either in present, past, or future time.—8. The Predicate, which comprises the whole assertion, both the verb, object, and adjuncts. From this statement we see, that the terms Subject and Predicate are more restricted in Grammar than in Logic; the Subject in Grammar being simply the Nominative Case, and the Predicate the verb. As the verb, however, when transitive, requires the object to be stated to complete the sense, the verb and object are, in ordinary language, regarded as forming the Grammatical Predicate.—Tho extension of meaning in a Logical Subject over a Grammatical one, will, in some cases, occasion a great difference in the sense. Thus, in the phrase, "A man of piety fears to sin," the Grammatical Subject is "Man," but, it cannot be said, that "any man fears to sin," it is only a particular kind of man, namely, "the man of piety," and the clause thus completed denotes the Logical Subject.
- f. The following Table exhibits the various parts of a Sentence, both Grammatically and Logically:—

	1. Sulfed.	2. Adjunct.	3. Predicate.	4. Direct Object.	
1	The Commerce	of Britain	employa	many persons	in mann- facture.
1. Grammar.	The Interest	of 6 months	is duo		to the
	Demosthenës	the Athenian	incited	{ his coun- }	against Philip.
	Cicero	the Roman	was eminent		for eloquence.
	The master	{of the in-}	instructed	hlm	Grammar.
	_		.	Th 2 *	

- Subject. Cop. Predicate.

 The Commerce of Britain is the employment of many people. The Interest of Six Months is due to the treasury.

 Demosthenes the Athenian was the inciter of his countryment. Ciero the Roman remarkable for cloquence.

 The master of the Institution was his instructor in Grammar.
- 300. a. An Idiom is the general or regular syntactical structure of words in a sentence, either with regard to their inflection, agreement, government, or arrangement; thus, in English, the Adjective generally precedes its noun, and the Nominative its verb; but, in some other languages a different order prevails.
- b. An Idiomism is some peculiar usage of certain words, or combinations of words, which forms an exception to the general rule; thus, in conversation, we use you instead of thou, when speaking to a single person.—c. Idiomatic is a term applied to that mode which is conformable to the regular and established order of construction.
- 301. a. A Phrase is part of a sentence, consisting of two or more words, so connected as to imply a certain relation, but without affirming anything.
- b. Phrases are frequently employed instead of single words;—thus,—1. For a Noun, we may use the Infinitice; as, Study—"to study." 2. For an Adjective, we can use a Prepositional Phrase; thus, for "A vite man," we may say, "A man of visdom." 3. Also, instead of an Adverb, we may use a Prepositional Phrase; thus, for "He acted cautiously," we can say, "He acted with caution."
- 302. Sentences are of three kinds:—1. Simple;—2. Complex;—3. Compound.

1. SIMPLE SENTENCES .- a. The Subject.

LESSON 50. b. Exercise 50. b. - Page 47.

- 303. a. A Simple Sentence contains only one Subject and one finite Verb; as, "Hope sustains the mind."
- b. A Simple Sentence is said to be afirmative when it asserts or affirms comething; as, "I admire Paley's Works."—Negative, when the adverb not is used; as, "He did not write the letter."—Imperative, when it expresses a command or exhortation; as, "Study your lessons."—Interrogative, when it asks a question; as, "Has he written the letter?"
- 204. Subjects may be either Simple or Enlarged.—A Simple Subject consists either of a single word or of a phrase, with or without the article.—An Enlarged Subject is one to which certain attributes are added to extend or modify its signification.
 - 305. The Simple Subject, which is always in the Nominative

Case, and answers the question who? or what? may consist of the following:—

- I. A Noun or Pronoun; as, " The man has arrived."
- 2. An Adjective with the article, used as a noun; as, "The industrious deserve encouragement."
 - 3. An Infinitive Mood; as, " To forgive is enjoined."
- 4. Part of a Sentence; as, "Exercising putience is advantageous." "His not being prepared caused the delay." "From Leeds to York is 22 miles." "Between fifteen and twenty years of age is a critical period."

Note.—In an Imperative clause, the Subject is frequently omitted; as, "Attend," for "Attend thou or you."—With Impersonal verbs, the subject is represented by the pronoun it; as, "It rains."—When the word it introduces a sentence as the Subject, an explanatory clause follows to which it refers; as, "It is the daty of every man to manage his own affairs;" that is, "To manage his own affairs is the duty of every man."

- 306. The Enlarged Subject.—The Simple Subject is enlarged by adding one or more attributes to it. These may be—
- 1. One or more Adjectives prefixed; as, "Steady, persevering industry overcomes difficulties."—Or, an Adjective following when it refers to the subject; as, "The man regardless of toil aims at excellence."—The Adjectives may be modified by Adverbs; as, "That very eminent man."
- 2. One or more Nouns in apposition, or Titles, consisting of several terms; as, "My friend, the poet and historian, wrote the essay." "Arthur, Duke of Wellington, the celebrated general, gained the victory of Waterloo."
- 3. A noun or pronoun in the Possessire Case, or a noun with of, which is equivalent to a Possessive; as, "The master's house is visible;" "Six months' interest is due;" "Your hat is found;" "The rong of the nightingale is melodious."
 - 4. An Infinitive Clause; as," The idea, to ask permission, did not occur."
- 5. A Prepositional Clause; as, "The cottage, in the wood, was damp." "One of his friends was absent."
- 6. A Participial Clause; as, "The man, having been cautioned, resumed his work;" "The general, on perceiving the enemy, alvanced his columns." In these and similar instances, the participle must refer to the subject. When that is not the fact, a different mode is necessary; thus, "Having concluded his speech, he departed," is correct; but, "Having concluded his speech, we departed," is incorrect. We can properly say, "At the conclusion of his speech, we departed;" or, "The speech having been concluded, we departed."
- 7. Any Combination of the preceding; as, "A faithful follower, of the name of Firebrace, attended the king."

LESSON 50. c.—Exs. 50. c. 1st, 2nd, & 3rd.—Pages 48 to 50. b. The Predicate.

- 307. a. The Grammatical Predicate of a Sentence is, in a limited sense, a finite Verb, which asserts of the subject—1. What it is; as, "Lead is heavy."—2. What it does; as, "The horse runs;" "The man writes."—3. What is done to it; as, "A letter is written."
- b. Instead of the Finite Verb, the Predicate may be varied by employing—1. Some Tense of the verb To Be and an Adjective; as, "Gold is ductile."—2. The Verb To Be and a Noun in the Nominative; as, "Columbus was a discoverer."—3. The Verb To Be and an Adverb or a Prepositional Phrase; as, "The horse was there;" "He was of that opinion."—The word not forms a part of the predicate.

308. a. Completion of the Predicate. - Direct Object. - When the verb in the Predicate is Transitive, the sense requires some Para. 308.1 word or phrase to denote the Object directly affected by the action, and thus, to complete the Predicate; as, "God created the world."—The relation existing between the predicate and the world." its completion, is called the Objective Relation, and the word or

b. The Direct Object can be expressed in the same manner as clause denoting it the Complement. the Subject; namely, 1. By a Noun or Pronoun; as, "The man has written a letter and sent it." 2. By an Adjective used as a noun; as, "The judge acquitted the innocent."—3. By an as a noun; as, "Ine juuge acquitteu the innocent. By a Parti-Infinitive Mood; as, "The boy loves to study." 4. By a Parti-cipial Phrace; as, "He loves reading the poets." 5. By a whole clause; 12, "He asserted, that the guilty ought to be punished."

309. Direct Object Enlarged.—The Object of a Transitive Verb being either a noun or an equivalent to a noun, can be enlarged like the Subject of a sentence,—1. By Adjectives; as, and argued like the Subject of a sentence,—2. By Nouns in apposition of the large field."—2. By Nouns in apposition of the large field. tion: as, "The barrister defended John, the painter."—8. By Possessive Cases either of nouns or pronouns; as, "We admire the poet's taste: "He has studied the Satires of Horace."—1. By a Parlicipial or Prepositional Phrase; as, "We beheld the by a lancicipum of liepositional lineses, us, we beneat the sun rising in all its splendour." "We inspected the gallery of

310. a. Indirect Object.—Most Transitive Verbs require only one Direct Object, others, besides a direct require a secondary, paintings." remote or Indirect Object, or that to or for which any thing is done, or from which any thing is taken away; as, "He gave the book to me." "You took the property from him." "He

instructed the doy in Ordinatar.

b. The Indirect Object may be—1. A Norm or Pronoun in approxition to, nother; as, "They made William Ling."—2. A Norm with a preposition to, for, from, on; as "He gave the letter to John." I stated the case for James."—4. Words following to, from, on; as "He gave the letter to John." I stated the case for James."—4. Words following to, from, on; as "He gave the letter to John." as his keir."—4. Words following to, as a causing, acquiting, conriding, instructing, and ming, &c.; as, "We accused the man of ararize."—5. Words following certain intransitives and adjectives with of, in, &c.; as, "He despaired of success." He was mind into of his promise." instructed the boy in Grammar."

c. The Predicate is incomplete when formed by such intransitive verbs as, Be, e. The Frenche is incomplete when formed by such intransitive verbs as, Be, become, seem, grow, live, fall, die, appear, &c., and by such transitives as, Make, dem, call, think, appoint, consider, eled, &c. ful of his promise.

311. Extension of the Predicate. - In addition to being complcted, the Predicate may be criended, by employing either a simple or compound adverb, an adverbial phrase, a participial or prepositional phrase, or any combination of these forms to express time, place, manner, cause, motive, means, material, &c.; as, "He visited us yesterday;" "He reads sir hours daily; as, The visited as yes, and the went there; "He writes with "He lives in London;" "He went there; "The writes with difficulty; " "He could not sleep for the heat;" "He acted from fear : " "He gained his seat by bribery."

2. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

ZESSON 50. d.—Exercises 50. d. 1st & 2nd.—Pages 50 to 52.

- 312. A Complex Sentence consists of one Principal Subject and Predicate, with several clauses introduced to explain or modify either the Subject or Predicate. These clauses must be so connected by means of relatives, conjunctions, and other particles, as to show that they are subordinate to the Leading Subject.—The part which contains the leading Subject and Predicate is called the Principal Clause; the rest are subordinate. Thus, in the sentence, "He who preserves me, whose I am, and whom I ought to serve, is eternal;" the principal clause is,—"He is eternal;" the other clauses are subordinate.
- 313. Subordinate Sentences are of three kinds;—1. The Noun Sentence; 2. The Adjective Sentence; 3. The Adverbial Sentence.
- 1. The Noun Sentence is when either (a) the Subject of the principal sentence, or (b) the Object (whether direct or indirect) which completes the Predicato, is Expanded into a clause or centence; thus, (a) "Honety is commanded," may be thus expanded—"That a man should be honest, is commanded,"—(b) "Skill requires diligence,"—or, "Skill requires that we should be diligent."—The Noun Sentence is generally introduced either by that, or by the interrogatives, who, what, how, when, whence.
- 2. An Adjective Sentence is the expansion of an Adjective into the form of a proposition, which is introduced by the relatives who, which, that. It may be attached either (a) to the Subject, (b) to the Object, (c) or to any part of the predicate where an adjective is admissible; as, (a) "The thoughtful man provides against sickness;" or, "The man, who is thoughtful," &c. (b) "He missepent his leisure; or, "He missepent the time which he had to spare." (c) "He wrote the letter with the pen which he had just purchased."
- 3. An Adverbial Sentence occupies the place and follows the construction of an Adverb. Like the Adverb it describes time, place, manner, cause, condition, degree, &c., and generally qualifies the Predicate; as, "He leaves home whenever he pleases." "He remains where he was." "He did, as well as he could," "He will succeed, if he persevere." "He succeeded, better than was expected."

3. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

LESSON 50. e.—Exercise 50. e.—Page 52.

- 314. A Compound Sentence contains two or more complete sentences or propositions, connected by the co-ordinative conjunctions, and, both—and, either—or, neither—nor, but, also, not only—but, &c. (See 228.) Sentences are co-ordinate when they are separate independent propositions, having the same relation to the entire sentence.
- 315. Compound Sentences are either Uncontracted or Contracted.
- a. Uncontracted Compound Sentences consist of such as combine into one sentence two or more independent propositions with little or no alteration; as, "Industry procures com-

petence, and frugality preserves it." "Either industry must be exercised, or ignorance will be the result."

- b. Contracted Compound Sentences.—When co-ordinate sentences contain either the same subject,—the same predicate or object,—or the same adverbial adjunct to the Predicate, the portion which these have in common is generally expressed only once. Thus, in the sentence—"God made and governs the world;" as the subject, God, is applicable both to made and governs, it is mentioned only once. The sentence is then said to be contracted.
- 316. Contracted Compound Sentences are chiefly abridged according to the following modes; thus,—
- 1. When one Subject has two or more predicates; as, "Study nourishes youth, and amuses old age."
- 2. When two or more Subjects have only one predicate; as, "Tyre and Sidon were famous cities."
- 3. When there are two or more Objects to one predicate; as, "France has produced eminent historians and poets."
- 4. When there are two or more Extensions of the predicate; as, "Tyre was celebrated both for its dye, and its commerce."
- 317. Sentences are divided by points or stops. Those parts of a sentence which are separated by commus, are called clauses; and those separated by semicolous, are called members.

THE RULES OF SYNTAX.

LESSONS 51. a. & b.—Exercises 51. a. & b.—Page 54.

- L. 51. a.—318. a. Syntax consists of Concora or Agreement, Government, Connection, and Arrangement of words in a sentence.
- b. Concord is the agreement which one word has with another, in gender, number, person, or case.
- c. Government is that power which one word has in requiring a noun or pronoun to be in a particular case.
- d. Connection is the appropriate combination of words with regard to mood, tense, case, or construction, when similarly circumstanced.
- e. The Arrangement of words is their collocation or relative position in a sentence.
- f. The syntactical or regular arrangement of words observed in the structure of English sentences is, first, the subject; secondly, the rerb; and thirdly, the object. Thus, (1) Hope (2) sustains (3) the mind.
- g. The preceding is called the direct or regular mode of structure, which is project in our ordinary discourse. But when we wish to render the object prominent, this order is frequently reversed, hence styled interled; thus, instead of saying, "I have neither silver nor gold," we may employ the inverted mode and say, "Silver and gold have I none."
- k. Words used to explain or qualify either the subject, attribute, or object, are placed as near as possible to the words to which they belong. These explanatory or qualifying words are, as before stated, called adjuncts.
- i. The parts of speech which agree with each other, are the poun, the pronoun, and rerb:—those which qualify, are the article, the adjective, and the adverb;—those which govern, are the verb, and the preposition;—and that generally employed to connect words with one another is the conjunction;—Relatives also, are employed to connect.
- j. With the exception of the verb, the Rules for concord, government, and arrangement are not, in this Grammar, reparated into distinct portions, but inserted, according to their connection, under the respective parts of speech. By this arrangement, the learner will conjuir a knowledge of them with greater (acility.

CONCORD.

- 219. There are four concords:-
 - 1. Between a verb and its subject or nominative case.
 - 2. Between an adjective and a substantive.
 - 3. Between a relative and its antecedent.
 - 4. Between one substantive and another.

The Subject and the Verb.

RULE 1. ONE SUBJECT AND THE VERB.

- 320. a. A Verb must be of the same number and person as its subject or nominative case; as, "Thou hearest;" "Men are mortal."
- b. The Relation between a Subject and Verb is called the Predicative Relation;—that between an Adjective and Noun, the Attributive Relation;—that between a Transitive Verb and Object, the Objective Relation.—The Subject is always the Nominative; to say, "Him and her were married," should therefore be, "He and the were married."—Methints, Methought, are vulgarisms, and confined to certain species of poetry.
- c. When an adjective, with the definite article prefixed, is used without its nonn as the subject of a verb, the verb is put in the plural number; as, "The virtuous are respected."
- d. When the verb has several forms, that form should be adopted which is the most appropriate; and the same form, whether simple, progressive, or emphatic should be preserved throughout the sentence; thus, "The Lond girch and the Lord lakes away," should be either, "girch and lakesh away;" or, "gires and lakes away," "He conferred great favours, but did receive nothing in return but ingratitude," should be, "He conferred great favours, but received," &c.—In Scripture language, the termination eth is more general than es.—Dare and Need, when transitive, always have est and s in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing, of the pres, tense; but when intransitive, neage is divided. (See 162. e, 188. d.)
- e. The adjuncts of the nominative do not influence its agreement with the verb; ns, "Sir months interest was due."
- f. Mathematics, ethics, optics conics, physics, pneumotics, politics, &c. have preferably a flural verb, though some recent writers profer a singular verb; as, "Mathematics is the science." Sometimes a different construction of the clause manners, morals, pains, riches, lidinar, verpers, and wages are always plural. Means and amends, signifying one object, have a singular verb—signifying more than one, a plural verb. News is generally singular. (See ST, SS.)—Other subjects, as Tilles of books, having a plural form, but meaning only one thing, not have a singular verb; as, "The Pleasures of the Imagination was published in 1744;" that is, the work bearing that title.
- g. Violations of the Rule.—"In plety and virtue, consist the happiness of man;" consist, to agree with happiness. "Not one of the thousands present are conscious of their demerits," should be, "Not one of the thousands present is conscious of his demerits." "Six days' labour require the seventh day's rest;" ought to be require, to agree with labour and not with days'. "What arail the knowledge of grammar and of languages if we write incorrectly?" should be arails, to agree with knowledge.
- 321. An Infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, is frequently the subject of a verb, and then the verb must be in the third person singular; as, "To rise early conduces to health."
- r. 51. b.—322. a. Every personal verb must have a subject or Nominative case either expressed or understood. When there is one subject to two or more finite verbs, it is, in general, expressed only before the first, and understood to the rest; as, "Hered sent and beheaded John." But, when Emphasis is intended, the Nominative is repeated before each verb; as, "He walked, he ran, he leaped for joy." (See 401.)

- b. The nominative case is generally suppressed in the imperative mood; as, "Sudy," for "Study you." In poetry, the nominative is often omitted in interrogative sentences, in cases in which it would be improper in prose; as, "Lives there who loves his pain?" that is, "Lives there a man," &c.
- f.c. Verbs following the word than, have frequently their nominative understood; as, "Not that anything occurs in consequence of our late loss, more afflictive than was to be expected."
- d. VIOLATION OF THE RULE.—"As it hath pleased Him of His goodness to give you safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in great danger;" here, hath preserved is without a nominative case; the phrase should be, "and os He hath preserved you in great danger." It would, however, be better, in this sentence, to place hath preserved in the infinitive mood, governed by the verb pleased, and say, "As it hath pleased Him of His goodness to give you safe deliverance, and to preserve," &c.
- 323. a. Every Nominative, except the Nominative Absolute; requires a verb, either expressed or understood; as, "Who demonstrated the true system of the universe?" "Newton;" that is, "Newton demonstrated it." (See 348.)
- b. A noun representing a person or thing oddressed, is said to be in the Nominalire of Address; as, "O Winter! thou holdest the sun a prisoner in the east."
- c. A noun and its pronoun must not be the Nominative to the same verb; thus, "The boy, he is good," should be, "The boy is good."
- d. In animated language, a nominative semetimes introduces the sentence, when the sense is suddenly interrupted, and the nominative left without its intended verb; as, "A procession;—what a mixture of independent ideas of persons, habits, orders, motions, sounds, does this single word contain!"—In Solemn Questions, also, both the Noun and its Pronoun are frequently named; as, "Your fathers, where are they?"
- e. Violation of this Rule.—"This rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which hath been offered up to him;" here rule is without a verb; the pronoun it should therefore be expunged; thus, "If this rule had been observed," &c.
- 324. When a Noun or Pronoun joined with a participle, neither agrees with a verb, nor is governed by any word in the sentence, it is put in the Nominative Absolute; thus, "Him destroyed, all this will soon follow," should be, "He destroyed," that is, "He being destroyed."
- 325. In English, the Subject properly precedes the verb, and the predicate follows. When, therefore, a neuter verb comes between two nominatives of different numbers or persons, it agrees with the one preceding it; as, "His meat was locusts and wild honey;" except when the terms are either purposely transposed, or the proper subject is placed after the verb by question; as, "His pavilion were dark waters;" "Who art thou?"
- 226. a. The phrase "as follows," refers to one subject; as, "His argument was as follows;"—as follow refers to more than one; as, "His words were as follow." (See 231. a.)
- b. As appears, is always singular; as, "His arguments were, as oppears, incontrovertible," that is, as it oppears.

327. POSITION OF THE NOMINATIVE.—The nominative, in ordinary language, proceeds the verb; but this position is sometimes varied;—as,

- 1. When the sentence is interrogative, exclamatory, imperative, or optative, the nominative follows the verb; as, "Have you read Paley's works?" "Long live our monarch;" "Study (you) your lessons;" "Mayet thou be happy."
- 2. When a supposition is expressed, if being understood; as, "Were I Alexander," that is, " If I were Alexander."
- 3. When a neuter verb is preceded by a preposition and its case, or by the adverbs here, there, hence, thence, now, then, hereafter, thus, the conjunction yet, i.e.; a., "Above it stood the seraphim;" "Here are five men;" "Hence sprung his eminence."
- 4. When a gentence depends on neither or nor, so as to be connected with another sentence; as, "The eye which saw him, shall see him no more, neither shall his place any more behold him."
- 5. When the speaker is influenced by strong emotion, or when we wish to dignify the subject and render the sentence emphatical; as, "Die he must, or one greater;" "Great is our God, and mighty is His name."

BULE 2. NOMINATIVES SINGULAR CONNECTED BY And.

LESSON 52:-Exercise 52.-Page 56.

- 328. a. Two or more subjects singular, connected by and, expressed or understood, require the verb and the dependent nouns and pronouns to be in the plural number; as, "Virtue and good breeding render their possessor truly amiable."
- d. ILLUSTRATION.—The principle on which this Rule is founded, is abbreviation. Thus, instead of saying, "Rome was once a powerful state," "Carthage was once a powerful state;" we avoid this repetition, as the rame thing is affirmed of both, and say, "Rome and Carthage were once powerful states."
- 320. a. When two or more singular subjects connected by and are of different persons, the verb is plural, and in the first person when I is mentioned; or in the second when thou or you is mentioned; as, "He and I (we) are occupied in our studies." "Thou and John have shared it between you."
 - b. When the same Noun is united with two Adjectives indicating two different things, the verb must be plural; as, "Both the moral and the intellectual training require attention."
 - c. In the Position of Pronouns, the speaker generally mentions himself last; and the person addressed first; as, "You and I;" "He and I."
 - 330. a. The verb is singular in the following instances; 1st. When the Nominatives connected by and refer only to one individual; as, "That scholar and antiquarian, has written a work."
 - 2ndly. When the word every precedes two or more singular nouns; as, "Every leaf, every twig teems with life." "Every town and village was burnt."

3rdly. When equality is implied, and not combination; as, "Caesar, as well as Cicero, was remarkable for eloquence."

4thly. When a negative word follows and, the verb is in the same number and person as the subject before the negative; as, "You, and not I, were to blame." "He, and not they, was culpable."

- b. In cases in which two nouns denoting inanimate things of nearly the same meaning are employed, some writers, in imitation of the Greek idiom, use a singular rather than a plural verb. But this mode should not be imitated, as it is foreign to our idiom.
- 331. a. A singular nominative connected with other nouns by the preposition with, preserves the verb in the singular, as either (a) mere concomitancy, or (b) instrumentality is thus intended; as, (a) "The King, with his life-guards, has just passed." (b) "The man, with a pen, writes a letter."
- b. On the same principle, a clause added to a nominative, merely to modify it, has no influence over the verb; as, "Virtue, joined to knowledge, confers respectability;" that is, "Virtue confers respectability; on this condition, that it is joined to knowledge." In such centences, the first nominative is the subject, the others are only subordinate to it, So also, "This circumstance, together with its style and contents, strengthens the supposition."
- c. But nouns denoting joint and equal agency must be connected by and (and not by with), and the verb be made plural; as, "The line A and the line B;" or, "The lines A and B compose the angle."
- d. For the same reason, "Sobriety, with great industry and talent, enable a man to perform great deeds;" "One, added to six, moke seven;" ought to be, "Sobriety, great industry, and talent combined, enable a man," &c. "One and six make seven."

-RULE 3. SINGULAR SUBJECTS CONNECTED BY Or, Nor.

LESSON 53.—Exercise 53.—Page 57.

- 332. Two or more subjects singular, connected by the words either—or, whether—or, neither—nor, &c., require the verb and the dependent nouns or pronouns to be in the singular number, because the subjects are taken separately; as, "Either John or Joseph intends to accompany me;" that is, one intends, but not both.
- 333. a. When these singular nominatives, connected by or, nor, &c., are of different persons, the verb generally, for the sake of brevity, agrees with the one placed the next to it; as, "Either thou or he is to be blamed."
- b. But the dirersity of objects is more clearly denoted by supplying the verb to each nominative; as, "Either thou art to blame, or ho is;" "Either he must resign his situation, or I must resign mine."—When we say, "Neither you nor I was satisfied at our reception," we mean, at the reception given to both, and not to one of us,

- 334. a. A singular and a plural nominative, connected by or or nor, require a verb to be plural, and the plural nominative to be placed next to the verb; as, "Neither poverty nor riches were injurious to him."
- b. When the latter nominative is merely explanatory of the former, or connected with it by but, the verb agrees with the former; as, "The Decalogue, or Ten Commandments, is in two parts." "Nothing but riches was sought after."
- c. If a particular emphasis is intended, the verb must be expressed before each nominative; as, "Neither was poverty, nor were riches injurious to him." And also, whenever the verb has been expressed before the first nominative, it is generally repeated before the econd; as, "Neither was his pronunciation, nor were his gestures agreeable." In interrogative sentences, however, the verb, for the take of brevity, is not usually repeated; thus, "Has neither the Duke nor his servants appeared?"—In familiar language we say, "There are one or two points," thus connecting are with the plural noun—points.

BULE 4. A NOUN OF MULTITUDE -Ex. 53. b .- Page 58.

- 335. a. When a collective norm conveys unity of idea, the verb and pronoun should be singular; as, "The nation is powerful." But when it conveys plurality of idea, the verb and propoun must be plural; as, "The committee were divided in their sentiments."
- b. Such Collective Nouns as have only one form are generally used in the plural; as, Mankind; people, public, nobility, aristocracy, gentry, loily, pearhity, roblitry, penrally, auditory, and commonally. Such as have two forms (singular and plural) are used generally in the singular; as, court, army, meeting, parliament, remnant, church.—Of these words, mankind, being universal, admits of neither the nor that being placed before it; People takes either the, this, thee, that, those.—The following admit only the—Public nobility, artheracy, gentry, lally, peasantry, soldiery, generally, commonally. These admit a, ch, the, according to the sense—Court, auditory, army, meeting, parliament, remnant, church. The same sense should, if possible, be retained throughout the sentence; but sometimes the same word is need collectically in one chause, and distributely in another: as, "This people's heart is waxed gross, and their eyes have they closed." "This people draucth nigh," &c., "but in vain they do worship."
- c. Sometimes a collective noun is connected with a plural adjunct, the sense of which adjunct may prefer a plural to a singular construction; as, "Part of the men were wounded and part of them were clain;" that is, "the men were partly wounded and partly clain."

BULE 5. ARTICLES.

LESSONS 54. a. & b.—Exercises 54. a. & b.—Page 59.

- L. 54. a.— Omission of the Article.—330: 1. a. A common Noun used in its widest sense, that is, comprehending the schole of its species, has no article before it; as, "Man is mortal;" "Gold is ductile;" "Industry is essential."
- b. The article is therefore omitted before the names of virtues, vices, passions, qualities, arts, sciences, metals, herbs, &c.
- . c. Sometimes a noun without an article before it has some word understood; an," There are men destitute of shame;" that is, "some men."
 - 2. Proper Names have no article before them; except,
 - 1. When a particular Family is alluded to; as, "a Johnson," or one of that Levily.

- 2. When particular distinction is implied; as, "a Cicero," meaning an eloquent man. "The Cicero of the age" denotes the most eloquent.
- 3. When a common name is understood; as, "The (river) Thames;" "The (ship) Neptune;" "The plous (man) David."
- 4. When a person is spoken of as either little known, or not much thought of; as, " Λ Mr. Thompson spoke."
- 3. a. Words also which are sufficiently determinate in their signification, have no article prefixed; as, "Parliament is assembled;" "Government perseveres;" "A pound of cheese."
- b. Custom allows in some familiar expressions, but not in others, the omission of the article; as, "I am in haste," "He is in a hurry." "He is at school," means, He is receiving instruction; but "at the school;" would imply at some particular school. In familiar language, we say, at best, at least; in a formal manner, at the best, at the least.
- 337. Insertion of the Article a or an.—1. The Article a or an denotes one, but not a particular one, and is used before nouns in the singular;—A is used before a consonant and the aspirate h: as, "a book;" "a hand." An before a vowel or a silent, h; as, "an army;" "an hour." (See 64.)
- 2. A is used before collective words; as, "a dozen," "a hundred," "a thonsand." It is placed before plural nouns when they are preceded by the words few and great many; as, "A few men;" a great many apples."—In Poetry, a is frequently placed between the adjective many and a singular noun; as, "Fall many a gem." This construction, though allowable in Poetry, and very common in colloquial language, is, however, incorrect.
- 3. A or an is sometimes used for each, every, or any; as, "Sixpence a dozen;" "A guines a week;" that is, each dozen, each week. "A prudent man would act differently," that is, any prudent man.
- 338. The Omission of a or an before such words as few, little, and others, expressing a small number or quantity, diminishes the number or quantity; as, "His conduct was so irregular that he gained few friends," meaning an extremely small number.—But the insertion of a or an before such words increases the quantity; as, "His conduct was so just that he gained a few friends," meaning some.
- 339. a. The.—The indicates a particular person or thing, and is used in both numbers; as, "I saw the king;" "Write the letters."—The is sometimes employed to distinguish one class or species from another; as, "The eagle is a bird of prey."
- b. When I say "The eagle," I imply that birds are divided into classes, and that the eagle is one of them. So, "The horse is a noble animal," distinguishes one species of animals from another.
- 340. a. The is used before adjectives in the Superlative degree, when a particular sense is intended; as, "The happiest man;" and before Comparatives when equality of excess is intended; as, "The more you study, the more learned you will become;" that is, "By how much the more you study, by so much the more learned you will become."

5 3

- b. "A most eminent physician," means one of the number of the eminent. "The most eminent physician," denotes that this individual alone is the most distinguished. The sometimes supplies the place of a personal pronoun; as, "He looked him in the face;" for "in the face."
- 311. a. The is sometimes repeated before titles; as, "The worshipful the Mayor." But titles, when mentioned merely as such, have no article prefixed; as, "He obtained the title of Duke."

We can properly say, Ho became or was made an Earl, a Baron, a Duke, &c.; that is, one of the Earls, Barons, Dukes, &c.

- b. The is generally placed between a nonn and the ordinal number denoting a series; as, "George the Fourth," "Chapter the Fifth."
- 1. 54. b.—342. a. When a relative clause is restrictive, the antecedent noun must have the article the, or the words that or those prefixed to it; as, "The man, or that man, who endures to the end, shall be saved;" that is, not every man, but only he who endures to the end.
- b. When the relative clause is merely explanatory and not restrictive, the noun is rarely, though sometimes, preceded by an article; thus, "Godliness, which, with contentment, is great gab, has the promise both of the present life and of that which is to come." Here, the clause, "which, with contentment, is great gain," points to a certain property in the antecedent godliness, but does not restrict its signification.
- 343. In ordinary discourse, the article is prefixed only to the first of several nouns used in the same construction, and omitted before the rest; as, "The sun and moon were in conjunction."—But when emphasis is intended, or the attention is directed to cach subject, the article must be repeated before each; as, "The sun, the moon, and the stars were created by the Almighty."
 - 344. a. When two (common) nouns signifying different persons or things come together, to denote that difference, an article must be inserted before each; as, "The treasurer and the secretary," denote two persons.—b. But, when only one person or thing is meant, the Article must not be repeated; as, "The treasurer and secretary," meaning only one person.
 - c. The utility of this rule is more clearly seen when a Proper Noun occurs with two common ones; thus, "Pompey the general and the quaestor," denotes two persons; but, "Pompey the general and quaestor" would denote one. Similarly, "James the son of Zebedee and the brother of John," denotes two; but, "James the son of Zebedee and brother of John," denotes only one.
 - d. In denoting comparison or contrast also, when two or more persons are intended, the article is repeated before each; no, "He is a better soldier than a scholar," denotes that "He is a better soldier than a scholar would be."—e. But when only one person is intended, the article is not repeated; thus, "He is a better soldier than scholar," means that "He makes a better soldier than he does a scholar."
 - 345. a. When two or more Adjectives are applied to different subjects having the same name, the article must be repeated

before each adjective; as, "A blue and a yellow flag were flying;" meaning two, one of each kind.

- b. Even in those words in the use of which no ambiguity could occur, attention must be paid to this Rule; thus, were I to say, "The singular and plural number;" "The Old and New Testament," my meaning would not be misunderstood, because a number cannot be both singular and plural, nor a testament both old and new. We must, however, conform to the Rule, and say, "The singular and the plural number;" "The Old and the New Testament."
- c. When only one thing of each sort is intended, the distinction is denoted by not pluralizing the noun; as, "The French and the English frigate fought off Scilly;" meaning only one of each nation. When more than one of each sort are intended, the substantive is pluralized; as, "The French and the English frigates fought off Scilly;" meaning more than one of each nation.
- d. When two or more Adjectives are descriptive of the same thing, the Article is not repeated, but placed only before the first adjective; as, "A blue and yellow flag;" meaning a flag that is both blue and yellow. "The amiable and learned instructor."
- e: Eeveral adjectives, however, though applied to the same subject, when a particular emphasis is intended, or when one adjective begins with a Consonant and the other with a Vowel, may admit an article before each, if no ambiguity would occur; as, "The learned, the eloquent, and the patriotic Chatham;" "A just and an amiable man." In ordinary conversation we should say, "Tho learned, eloquent, and patriotic Chatham;" "A just and amiable man."
- f. Position of the Article.—The Article is generally placed before the adjective; as, "A just man." When the words as, so, too, how, connected with adjectives, and the word such, precede a noun, the article is placed between them and the noun; as, "Such a man;" "So glorious a cause." The word all precedes the article; as, "All the men." When the noun precedes the adjective, the article is placed as usual before the noun; as, "A cause so glorious."

RULE 6. NOUNS.

LESSONS 55, 56.—Exercises 55, 56.—Page 62.

- L. 55. a.—846. a. Nouns and pronouns coming together, and signifying the same thing, are put in the same case by Apposition; as, "William the king."
- b. A noun is sometimes put in Apposition with a part of a sentence; as, " You write very carelessly—a habit which you must correct."
- 347. Complex Names .- a. In pluralizing a complex name, or a name and title, observe-
 - 1. In conversation, pluralize the name; ["The Miss Howards, the two Miss
 - 2. In addressing letters, pluralize the function of the Misses Howard; "To the Misses Howard;" "To the Messes. Thompson."
- 3. But for married ladies, in both instances, pluralize the name; as, "The Mrs. Wilsons;" "To the Mrs. Wilsons."
- 4. When a Title, which is applicable to more persons than one, is not regarded as part of one compound name, the title must be pluralized; as, "The Lords Brougham and Lyndhurst;" meaning two lords. "The Lords Bishops of Durham and Carlisle;" "Mestrat Jackson and Son."

- 5. When a Firm consists of two or more persons of the same name only, the plural of the Tille sufficiently indicates that plurality; as, "Messes. Longman."—But when these are connected with others of a different name, to indicate that distinction, both the name of the brothers and the tille of the firm must be pluralized; thus, "Messes. Longmans, Green, Reader, and Dyer," denotes that there are at least two Longmans in the firm. (See 353.6.)
- 348. Answers.—A noun or pronoun which answers a Question must be in the same case as the noun which asks it; as, "Who speaks?" "I;" that is, I speak. "Whose books are these?" "John's;" that is, They are John's. (See 372.)

Loss, 55. b .- RULE 7. POSSESSIVE CASES.

- 340. a. A Noun denoting the owner or possessor of anything must be in the Possessive or Genitive Case.—In English, the Possessive has two forms—the Saxon, which ends in 's (a contraction of cs or is), and the Norman, which substitutes of for the case ending 's. The Saxon is the form most commonly used; but the Norman may be used instead of it, whenever it has the same meaning.
- b. The Saxon Genitive is generally Active, denoting (see 93) origin, agency, possession, or mutual relation; as, "God's providence; men's actions; John's house; the Jather's chiefd; the child's father."—In these instances, the Norman of might be employed.—Sometimes this form is employed to denote the duration; of some action; as, "The Seven years' war."
 - c. The Norman of is especially employed as an objective genitive, to denote—
 1. Either the object of an action or feeling; or 2. the materials of which the former consists, or the use for which it is employed; as, 1. "The love of fame,"
 "The fear of punishment."—2. "A bar of tron; a can of water." This Form is also employed after the words city, town, island, land, &c.; as, "In the town of Gaza; in the island of Java." (See 428.c.)
 - d. When the thing periessed is known, it is usually emitted; as, "I called at the lootseller's:" that is, "at his slop." So, also, "We have been to St. Paul's;" that is, "at his slop." So, also, "We have been to St. Paul's; "that is, "durch." Here, church being dedicated to St. Paul, is considered as lab uging to him.- Substantives govern Pronouns as well as nouns, in the possessive case; as, "Every tree is known by its fruit."—The appropriate form of the possessive must of course be observed; thus, hers, it, ours, yours, theirs, and not the vulcarism—lar's, it's, our's, &c.—As the possessive sign, 's, is a contraction of es or u, and not a corruption of his, it is improper to say, "John his book," for "John's book."
 - 350. a. When the thing possessed belongs to two or more persons only conjointly, the case ending is annexed only to the last noun; as, "John, Thomas, and James's house;" that is, a house belonging jointly to these persons.
 - b. But when the thing possessed is the separate property of two or more persons, the case ending is put after each possessive; as, "The emperor's and the king's forces were separated," denotes two distinct forces. "Your father's and mother's advice," that is, the separate advice of these.
 - c. Also, when comparison is intended, or when several words come between the possessive, the sign must be annexed to each; as, "They are William's as well as Thomas's books;" "Not a day's nor even an hour's unnecessary delay will take place." In such expressions as the following, "Thomas's and William's wires

were present," it would be better to say, "The wives of Thomas and William were present;" because the former expression might imply that each man had more wives than one.

- d. "In cases in which any ambiguity would occur, the use of the Saxon possessive should be avoided. Thus, if we say, agreeably to the first part of this rule, 'Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob's posterity were carried captive to Babylon,' one unacquainted with the history of these patriarchs might consider that the patriarch Abraham, the patriarch Isaac, and the posterity of Jacob, were carried captive. Nor will the insertion of the preposition always prevent the ambiguity. For if, instead of posterity, we substitute descendant, and say, 'The descendants of Abraham, of Isaac, and of Jacob,' the expression would imply three distinct families of these three individuals. But if we say, 'The common posterity of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, were carried captive to Babylon,' all ambiguity of expression is prevented. Eo also, when I say, 'I am acquainted with the prince and king's attendants,' my meaning is very different from 'the prince's and king's attendants,' or 'the attendants of the prince and those of the king.'"—(Crombie.)
- 351. a. In Poetry, the possessive singular of words ending in s or x, is generally formed by adding only the apostrophe ('); as, "Achilles' wrath."
- b. In prose, also, the possessive singular of words ending in ss or ence is frequently formed by adding merely the apostrophe; as, "For conscience' sake;" "For righteousness' sake."
- c. But when no unpleasant sound would be occasioned, both the apostrophe and s must be annexed; thus, "Moser's minister," "Felix's room."
- 352. Short explanatory sentences must not be inserted between a possessive case, and the word which usually follows it; as, "They consured the governor's, as they called him, tyrannical administration," should be, "They censured the tyrannical administration of the governor, as they called him."
- that is, consists of a Name and Title considered as one compound term, the case ending 's is annexed only to the last word; as, "Henry the Eighth's reign;" "The Bishop of Llandaff's excellent book;" "The Duke of Wellington's statue."
- b. In a firm consisting of several partners having different names, the case ending is annexed to the last name; as, "I called at Messra. Longmans, Green, Reader, and Duer's, the eminent publishers." All those names being in apposition are in the possessive. (See 347—5.)
- c. When one or two explanatory nouns are appended to the name, the possessive sign 's is annexed to the name only, especially when the governing noun is understood; as, "I left the parcel at Mr. Smith's, the druggist." "This is Dr. Copleston's, the Bishop of Llandaff."
- d. So, also, in these sentences, "These psalms are Darid's, the king, priest, and prophet of the Jewish people;" "Whose glory did he emulate? He emulated Cassar's, the greatest general of antiquity."—"The strike at Messra. Lucas's is now settled."—The omission of the governing noun is more common than its insertion.
- e. When the governing noun is expressed after the occupation, the possessive sign is affixed to the occupation or title; as, "He called at Mr. Smith, the chemist and druggist's shop." "I am thy servant Jesse the Bethlehemite's youngest son." (Here

Smith and Jesse are in the possessive case, but without the sign.)

- f. If the governing noun is expressed between the name and occupation, then the name takes the sign; as, Mr. Smith's shop, the druggist.
- q. In phrases, however, in which accred terms are applied to the same individual, it is better to use the particle of; thus, instead of saying, "This is Paul's advice, the Christian hero and great apostle of the Gentiles," it is preferable to ary, "This is the advice of Paul, the Christian hero, and great apostle of the Gentiles." So, also, "I called at the shop of Mr. Smith, the chemist and druggist," is better than, "I called at Mr. Smith, the chemist and druggist," shop."
- 354. a. The Norman Possessive of must sometimes be employed instead of the Saxon Possessive in 's, to prevent either ambiguity or unpleasantness of sound; thus, "The vote of the Commons;" "The house of Lords;" are preferable to "The Commons' vote; " "The Lords' house."
- b. For the same reason, instead of saying, "Whom he acquainted with the king's and the minister's designs;" it would be better to say, "With the designs of sike king and the minister." The too frequent recurrence of the particle of, saidfall, however, be avoided; thus, "The severity of the distress of the son of the king," should be, "The severe distress of the king's son."
 - "c. The particle of, joined to a substantive, is not always equivalent to the possestive case; it is only so when the expression can be converted into the possestive without altering the meaning; thus, "A cup of water" cannot be turned into "water's cup;" nor, "A crown of gold" into "gold's crown." "The Lord's Day" means "the Christian Sabbath;" but "The day of the Lord" signifies "the judgment-day."
- 355. a. When the thing possessed is only one of a number belonging to the possessor, both of and the possessive sign may be used; as, "A friend of his brother's," implies that he has more than one. So, also, "A son of yours," meaning one of several.
 - b. When there is only one object possessed, no possessive case is employed, but the word immediately following of is in the objective case; as, "This portrait of my friend," means a likeness of him.
 - e. "This picture of my friend's," signifies that it is one of several belonging to him; but "This picture of my friend," denotes a likeness of him. "A son of yours," denotes one of several; we cannot therefore any, "A father of yours," but "Four father." The former mode of expression may be varied thus, "This is one of my friend's pictures." So, also, "This is one of his brother's friends."
 - d. In employing the Porsessive Pronouns, when one of several is intended, the intertion of a numeral becomes necessary; as, "This is one of my houses, that is one of yours."
 - 350. Participial Nouns govern nouns and pronouns in the possessive case: as, "Much will depend on the pupil's comparing, but more on his reading frequently." "His being charted was the cause of so much quiet."

RULE 8. ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

LESSONS 57, 58,—Exercises 57, 58.—Page 65.

- E. 57.—357. a. Every Adjective agrees in number with some noun, expressed or understood, and is generally placed before the noun (except in the instances stated in 367); as, "A good man;" "Good men;" "This man, these men."
- b. When one adjective is used with two or more nouns, it must be strictly applicable to each; thus, "A frugal man and woman" implies that both of them are frugal. But, "A splendid mansion and gardens" is incorrect. It should be, "A splendid mansion and fine gardens."
- c. In English, only certain adjective prononns are raried on account of number.—Several nouns of weight or number, as brace, dozen, pair, couple, score, stone, hundred, thousand, &c., having a numeral adjective, two, three, four, &c., prefixed, generally retain the singular form, as, three brace, twenty stone, &c.; but without the numeral the nouns take the plural form, as, "He bought them by pairs, by dozens," &c.
- d. When the quality, quantity, or other property of a Subject is implied, an Adjective and not a Noun must be used; thus, "The reasons were plenty," should be —plentiful.—In colloquial language, Many is frequently but improperty used with a singular noun; thus, "Many a man has said so," should be, "Many men have said so."—The relation between a noun and its attributes is called the Attributer Relation.
- 358. a. "This means," and "That means," refers to one thing; "These means," and "Those means," to more than one thing; as, "He was diligent, and by this means; "He was industrious, frugal, and discreet, and by these means he became wealthy."
- b. Amends is used in the same manner as means: as, "Pence of mind is an honourable amends for the sacrifices of interest." "The good man's amends are of a pleasing nature."—The phrase, "A mean," is employed to signify medicarity, moderation, medium; as, "This is a mean between two extremes."
- 359. a. When two persons or things have been already mentioned in a sentence, and it is necessary to speak of them again, if we wish to avoid the repetition of the nouns, we use this in reference to the latter, and that to the former; as, "Knowledge and wisdom are very different; this enables us to do, that to know what is right."
- b. Former and latter are often used instead of this and that. They are the same in both numbers.—Later and latest have respect to time, and are the regular comparative and superlative of late;—latter and last refer to place or position.
- 360. a. The Distributives each, every, either, neither, require nouns, pronouns, and verbs, to be in the third person singular; as, "Let each of them be heard in his turn." "Every man is accountable for himself."
- b. Sometimes we commence in the plural, and then suddenly introduce the words each, every, &c.; as, "We have erred, each in his particular way," "If metals have each a peculiar earth." This mode may be varied thus; "Each of us has erred," &c. "Each metal has," &c.

Each relates to two or more objects, and signifies both or all taken separately. Each other is applied to two, when a reciprocal action or relation is intended; as, "They struck each other:"—one another refers to more than two as, speaking of many, we say, "They killed one another."

Either signifies only one of two; as, "Take either;" that is, "the one or the other, but not both." Neither signifies not either.—Either is often improperly used for each; thus, "On either side of the river, there was a cavern." If the writer means that there were true caverns, one on each side, then the expression ought to have been, "On each side," &c. The violation of this rule is a common but gross mixtake.

Ecery is applied to more than two objects taken individually, and comprehends all of them. It is sometimes joined to plural nouns, to denote a collective idea; as, "He visits us every ten days."

- 361. Care must be taken in using the Indefinite Adjective Pronouns, that they be applied according to their proper meaning; thus,
- a. Such is applied both to singular and plural nouns, with or without adjectives; as, "Such conduct, such men, such clever men."—When the Noun is placed first in a phrase, the adverb so is used instead of such before the adjective; as, "Men so clever:" "Trees so large."—When an Article is introduced, it is placed between the words such and so and the noun; as, "Such a man;" "Such a clever man," or "So clever a man."
- b. Such—as, the same—as are Correlatives, the latter word being the reciprocal of the former; as, "The prize was given to such as deserved it." (See 231. a.)
- c. Other followed by but is sometimes used in a redundant manner; as, "We drank no (cther) wine but Port;" "No (other) person but John was present;" "Thou shalt have no (other) gods but Mc." In these and similar instances, other should be omitted.—Others used instead of a noun, in the sense of additional, is followed by besides; as, "Others besides him have asserted the same thing." For the use of other in comparion, see \$52. d.
- d. Both is a plural adjective, denoting two collectively, and must be confined to two parties.—In the phruse, "Both of them," the words of them are superfluous.
- e. All joined to a singular noun refers to quantily; to a plural noun it refers to number; ns, "All the corn was sold;" "All men are mortal."—Any is generally used indefinitely, and sometimes for every one.—None (no one) is used in both numbers. But none and any without nouns expressed, have generally a plural verb,—Some, when used alone, requires a plural verb; when prefixed to one, nan, person. &c. a singular verb; as, "Some ono says." In the phrase, "All of them," the words of them are, in strictness, unnecessary.
- f. Much (its opposite little) refers to quantity, and of the singular number; as, "Much money was wanted."—Many agrees with substantives of the plural number; as, "Many men." In poetry, many is sometimes joined to a singular noun; as, "Full many a gem of purest ray servee."—Whole can be applied to collective nouns in the plural, as, "Whole nations;" but not to other nouns in the plural; thus, "Almost the whole inhabitants," should be, "Almost all the inhabitants."—For the use of One, see 121. c, and 124—4. d.
- 362. a. When two persons or things are compared, the Comparative degree must be employed; as, "William is taller than James."

When more than two persons or things are compared, the Superlative must be used; as, "This is the neatest of the three."

b. Comparison between two objects of different classes is expressed in the Comparative by than: as, "The Greeks were braver than the Persians."—When selection from two of the

same class is meant, the Comparative is followed by of: as, "John is the wiser of the two."

- c. In the Superlative degree the objects compared are in the same class, and the Superlative must be followed by of (without the word other); as, "Cicero was the most eloquent of the Romans."
- d. The insertion of the word other after the comparative, confines the persons or objects compared to the same class; thus, when I say, that "Socrates was wiser than any other Athenian," I mean, that Socrates himself was an Athenian; but were I to say, "Socrates was wiser than any Athenian," my expression would imply that Socrates was not an Athenian, but wiser than the Athenians.—In the Superlative degree, as we always compare one or more objects with others of the same class, the word other is unnecessary; thus, instead of saying, "Cicero, of all other Romans, was the most eloquent," we should say, "Cicero was the most eloquent of the Romans;" that is, out of the whole class of the Romans.—The words, other, rather, otherwise, used in comparison, are followed by than. (See 124—4.6.)
- e. VIOLATIONS OF THE RULE.—The phrases, of all others, of any other, with a comparative or superlative, are improper; thus, "A vicious course of life, is the saddest slavery of all others," should be, "is a sadder slavery than any other," or, "the saddest slavery of all." By the expression, "of all others," we improperly refer the subject of comparison both to the same and to a different aggregate; the word of referring it to the species to which it belongs, and the word others referring it to a different species. The word others should therefore be expunged.
- "Demosthenes was more cloquent than the Athenians," or, "than any Athenian," is incorrect; because Demosthenes was himself an Athenian, one of the class with which he is compared, and therefore we cannot say that he is more cloquent than himself. As the objects compared belong to the same class, the comparative cannot be employed, unless by placing them in opposition, or referring them to different places; as, "Demosthenes was more eloquent than any other Athenian." Here, the word other denotes that opposition, that diversity of place or species, which (except when the word of is used) is essentially implied in the use of the comparative—"Jacob loved Joseph more than all his children," is incorrect; Joseph being one of his children, the sentiment expressed involves an absurdity; it should be "more than all his other children."
- "Thomas is the wisest of his brothers," is incorrect; for Thomas cannot be one of his own brothers. We should use the comparative form, and say, "Thomas is wiser than his brothers." The superlative cannot be used unless some term be employed which includes both Thomas and his brothers; as, "Thomas is the wisest of his father's sons." Here, the word sons is applicable, both to Thomas and his brothers.
- f. The words than and as do not in English govern any case; thus, "Better than he (is)." "I like John better than (I like) him." "I like John better than he (likes John)." "I am as tall as he, they, thou." (See 372, 886.)
- 363. Double Comparatives and Superlatives should be avoided; thus, "The lesser number;" "The most liveliest man;" ought to be, "The less;" "The liveliest." "The more preferable," ought to be, "The preferable."
- 364. a. Adjectives which in their simple form imply the highest or the lowest possible degree of the quality, do not admit the comparative or superlative form superadded; such as, chief, extreme, right, true, perfect, universal, supreme, &c.
- b. In general, we should avoid using any qualifying words to the preceding. Many writers frequently use the terms "more and most perfect;" "more and most universal;" instead of "more and most excellent;" "more and most extensive." This mode of expression ought not to be adopted, except in very strong

and impurioned larguage, or to express the colouring of a lively imagination. We can say, "newer or nearest to perfection;" or "less and least imperfect." Should these terms be too weak, others may be adopted. "The glass is as full as it can hold." "The glass is full," or, "It can hold no more."

- z. 58.—365. a. Adjectives must in general be placed immediately before the nouns to which they refer.—Of several Adjectives, the Ordinal generally precede the Cardinal; as, "The first four," "the second four;" "the last three."
- t. When the Ordinal adjective proceeds the Cardinal, a reference is, in strictness, made to several series; as, "The first two, the second two, the last two," &c. But when the Cardinal precedes, reference is made merely to priority of 'position; as, "The first first; "the two last." Similarly, "Other two merely for two the first to a serie; but "The others" has no such reference. In common language, however, this distinction is frequently neglected; thus, we frequently hear—"Other two," "Other three;" (as, in Whalely's Syn. pp. 20, 21, 63). The sense must determine which mode should be employed.—"A good enough judge," should be—"A judge good enough."
- 286. a. Adjectives must not be used for adverbs, nor adverbs for adjectives. An adjective refers to a noun or subject, but an Adverb indicates the time or manner of some verb, or some modification of an adjective or adverb.
- b. The poets frequently deviate from this Rule, by using adjectives for adverbs; thus, "Drink dep or teste not the Pierian spring." "Heaven open'd wide her exclusing gates." This deviation is allowable in poetry, but not in prose. (See 429.)
- c. Two adverbs ending in ly should not be pisced together, when an unpleasant sound would be occarioned; thus, instead of saying, "He spoke extremely improperly;" it would be more agreeable to the ear to say, "He spoke very improperly;" or in stronger language, "He spoke with the greated impropridy." For the same reason, we should avoid employing Adverbs in ly derived from Adjectives in ly; thus, flowly and righteously are to be preferred to hollly and godliff. (See 222.)
- d. In the following instances, adjectives are improperly used for adverts: "Indifferent honest:" "Excilent well;" should be, "Indifferently honest:" "Excilently well." "They acted conformable to his instructions;"—conformable. The following phrases contain adverts improperly used for adjectives: "They were found rambling in a forest selfarily and forsaken;"—voildary; that is, in stillary and forsaken state or condition. "Their manner of living was agreeably to their rank and station;"—agreeable; that is, their manner was agreeable. "The study of Syntax should be previously to that of Punctuation;"—previous; that is, a study previous to that of Punctuation.
- c. The following sentences criticit the proper application of the adverb (the word qualified, and the edverb qualifying it, are printed in italies):—" With regard to criminal composition, the youth should, previously to his taking up the pea, for in his mind what object he has in view." "Agreeably to this definition, I inlead to offer to the reader's consideration some remarks." "Independently of his person, his notifity, his dignity, his relations, and friends, may be usped;" "Three months' notice is required previously to a pupil's leaving the school;" there, is required is qualified, therefore, the adverb previously is used. In the sentence, "Three months' notice is required to be given previously to a pupil's leaving the school;" to be given is intended to be qualified, and, therefore, the adverb previously is here also properly employed.
- f. As a pricial rule, it must be observed that the Adjective form of a word is used instead of the adverbial, whenever a reference to the Subject rather than to the action implied by the verb is intended; as, "He feels warm;" that is, he is in a warm state.—"He feels warmly the inval's oftered to him." "He always appears (to be) neat." "He always dresses neatly." "He lives free from care." "He lives freely at another's expense." "William has grown (has become) great

by his wisdom." "He has grown greatly in repute." "The statement seems (to be) exact." "The statement seems exactly in point." "It makes the plough go deep or shallow." This, as well as similar expressions, is elliptical; it may be expressed thus, "It makes the plough cut a deep or shallow furrow."—"Tho rose smells succei;" is sweet. "The plumbs taste sour;" have a sour taste. "How black the clouds looked;" were. "Correct thy heart, and all will go right;" that is, "be right." So, in familiar language, we say, "The sentence reads ill." "The wine tastes hard." "The parcel arrived safe." (See 420.)

- g. An adverb sometimes qualifies a whole clause; as, "Fortunately for us, the night was clear."
- h. Substantives are often used adjectively; as, "A stone elstern;" "A silver watch."—These are sometimes connected by a hyphen, and sometimes not.—The hyphen is used when both words are short; as, coal-mine, corn-mill. But when the words really coalesce, or have a long-established association, the hyphen is not used; as, "Yorkshire, honeycomb."
 - f. Sometimes the adjective becomes a substantive; as, "The chief good."

Position of the Adjective.

867. The adjective is generally placed before its substantive; as, "A generous man." The following cases are exceptions to this Rule:—

1st. When some word or words are dependent on the adjective; as, "Know-ledge requirite for a statesman."

2nd. When the adjective is emphatical, or used in certain Titles; as, "Alfred . the Great;" "The heir apparent;" "The Prince Regent."

3rd. When several adjectives belong to one substantive, they may either precede or follow the substantive; as, "A learned, wise, and amiable man;" or "A man learned, wise, and amiable." The longest adjective is generally placed the last.

4th. When the adjective is preceded by an adverb; as, "A man conscientiously exact."

When number or dimension is specified, the adjective follows; as, "An army twenty thousand strong;" "A wall three feet thick."

5th. The verb to be often separates the nonn from its adjective; as, "Gambling is ruinous."

6th. When the adjective expresses some circumstance of a substantive placed after an active transitive verb; as, "Vanity often renders a man despicable."

7th. In an exclamatory sentence, the adjective generally precedes the substantive; as, "How contemptible are the pursuits of the gay i" "Great is our God."

Sometimes the word all is emphatically put after a number of particulers comprehended under it; as, "Ambition, honour, interest, all concurred."

RULE J. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

LESSON 59.—Exercise 59.—Page 68.

- 363. a. Pronouns must agree with the nouns which they represent, in gender, number, and person, and this agreement must be preserved throughout the sentence; as, "The boys were attentive to their lessons."
- b. In the sentence, "You draw the inspiring breath of ancient song, Till nobly rises, emulous thy own;" as you and thy refer to the same person, they should be in the same number; "Till nobly rises emulous your own."—Fe or you may be used for the nominative, you only for the objective.
- c. We and Our are commonly used instead of I, mine, by sovereigns, persons in authority, authors, and editors of periodicals. (See 115. b.)
- 369. a. The noun and its pronoun must not be employed as nominatives to the same verb; thus, "The boy he is good," should be, "The boy is good."
- Also, the nonn and its pronoun must not be the objective to the same verb;
 thus, "The people, the Lord has destroyed them;" them is superfluous.
- c. In the Case Absolute, the executing verb agrees not with the case absolute, but with its own subject; as, "He being removed, the business proceeded."
- 370. a. Personal Pronouns must not be used for these and those. Personal Pronouns are used instead of nouns; these and those have always nouns either expressed or understood; it is, therefore, improper to say, "Give me them books;" we should say, "Give me those books."
- b. At the beginning of a sentence, when there is a particular reference to an antecedent, they may be employed; as, "The generals have differed among themselves. They have referred the dispute to their sovereign." When there is no reference to an antecedent, but a noun is understood, those may be employed; as, "Those that sow in tears," that is, Those persons, &c.
- c. In the singular, however, we say either he who, the man who, or that man who.
- 371. a. It is and it was, when expressing the persons or things that may be the cause of any effect or event, are often used in a plural construction; as, "It was the seditions that caused the disturbance." It would, however, be better to say, "The seditions caused," &c.
- b. When the cause of any effect or event is not implied, this mode of expression must not be used; thus, "It is true his assertions, though they are paradoxical," chould be, "His assertions are true, though they are paradoxical,"—c. A noan of time is also sometimes used in the planature it is; as, "It is now three months since I saw him."—It is frequently used indefinitely both in Questions and Answers; as, "Who it it?" "It is I." "It is some strangers who have come."

- 372. a. The words than and as do not govern any case of a pronoun, but the pronoun is either the nominative case to some verb, or the objective governed by a verb or preposition; thus, "Wiser than I (am)." "He respected him more than me:" that is, "more than he respected me." "He respected him more than I;" means, "than I respected him." (See 386 and 362. f.)
- b. Than should not govern who in the objective; thus, "Than whom" should be "Than he."
- c. A Pronoun answering a Question must be in the same case as that of the Question; as, "Who spoke? I, thou, he, they," &c. (See 348.)
- 373. a. The interjections, O! Oh! Ah! are followed by the objective case of a pronoun of the first person; as, "Oh me!" "Ah me!" but by the nominative case of the noun or pronoun in the second person; as, "O thou, who dwellest." "O Virtue, how amiable thou art."
- b. Oh is used to express the emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise, and is detached from the word; as, "Oh! the deceltfalness of sin!"—O is used to express wishing, exclamation, or a direct address to a person, and is generally prefixed only to a noun, pronoun, or adjective; as, "O virtue;" "O Thou!" "O happy day." (See 229.)
- 374. a. In the position of the personal pronouns, the second is placed before the third and first, and the first is placed the last; as, "Thou and he;" "Thou and I;" "He and I;" "You and I."—Personal Pronouns, when under the government of a Verb, may either precede or follow it. (See 387. e.)
- b. The neuter pronoun it is sometimes understood; thus, we say, "As appears;" that is, "as it appears."—c. It is sometimes employed to express—First, The subject of any discourse or inquiry; as, "It has happened unfortunately;" "Who was it that spoke to him?" Second, The state or condition of any person or thing; as, "How is it with you?" Third, The persons or things that may be the cause of any effect or event; as, "It was I;" "It was thou;" "It was he who did it;" "It was either the man or woman that spoke." (See 371.)

RULE 10. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

LESSONS 60, 61.—Exercises 60, 61.—Page 69.

- z. 60.—375. a. The Relative must be of the same gender, number; and person as its antecedent, but is not necessarily of the same case. The verb agrees with the Relative, when it is the subject, in number and person: as, "He is unworthy of confidence who has betrayed his trust."
- b. The Belative does not agree with its antecessent in case; the antecedent may be in one case and the relative in another; thus, "The Lord whom we serve is almighty." Here, Lord is the antecedent and nominative to the verb is; while whom the Relative is in the Objective Case governed by the verb serre.—Every Belative must have an Antecedent, expressed or understood.
 - c. The Relative agrees with the antecedent implied in the Possessice Pronoun,

- ks, "Hear my words, who am Jour senior." "I pity thy fate, who art reduced to this state."
- d. In Interrogations with a Nenter Verb, the norm or pronoun following the verb is the proper nominative; as, "Who art thou?" "Who is he?" "Who are they?" that is, "Thou art who?"
- 378. a. The Relative is in the Nominative case, when it is the subject of the verb; in the Possessive when it denotes the possessor; and in the Objective, when it is the object of a verb or preposition; as, "The man who perseveres is generally successful." "He whose creatures we are, is almighty." "He whom we serve is eternal."
- b. When both the Antocodent and the Belative are in the Kominatine case, as in the precoding example, the Belative is nominative to the verb part to it, and the Antocodent to the latin that will be for the latin that will be the latin that will be the latin that the latin the latin that the latin that the latin that the latin that the
 - c. When the Belative Clause is restrictive, the aniecedent noun must have the, that, or those prefixed to it; as, "The or that man, who perseverse, is generally successful." But, when the Relative Clause is merely explanatory, the ante-cedent noun is generally used without an article; as, "Prudence, which is a great virtue, conduces to enjety." (See 342.)
 - 377. a. Who is applied to persons of both sexes; as, "The man or woman who." Which to infants, irrational animals, and things without life; as, "The infant which; the horse which; the book which."—What includes that which; as, "This is what (that which) I want." (See 119. d.)
 - b. Which, in Interrogations, is used individually, when the noun either is or is not mentioned; as," Which of the three?" "Which man said so?"—But who, in Interrogations, is used indefinitely, and always without a noun; as, "Who has seen is?"
 - e. When a clause or part of a renience is the Antecedent, the word which is employed; "Though the evidence was strong against the prisoner, he was requitted, which englit not to have been the case."
 - d. Nouns of multitude, unless they express the plurality of persons directly as such, must not be represented by the relative who; thus, "Prance which," "the court which," and not who. But when persons are directly intended, then who may be employed; as, "The committee who were divided."—Who is, of course, applied to animals when personified; as, "The old Fox who."
 - e. Who is applied to the proper names of little children; as, "The little child John whom we saw."—As soon as reason begins to act, then who is ordinarily applied.—Which must not be employed for the demonstrative that; thus, "after which event," should be, "after that event."
 - 378. a. Instead of "of which," the possessive whose is frequently applied to inanimate things; as, "Pleasure whose nature," or, "the nature of which." Both forms are allowable, but the latter is generally preferred.
 - b. Who must not be used for whose and its governing noun; thus, "Queen Elizabeth, who was only another name for prudence;" should be, "whose name was only another word," &c.
 - e. The relative who must not be employed for as when following so; as, "There was no man so subguine who did not fear," should be, "as not to fear."

- 379. a. That is frequently used to prevent the too frequent repetition of who and which, and is applied both to persons and things; as, "He is a man that deserves respect;" "Logic is an art that teaches us to reason properly." That is not applied to Proper Names; thus, we do not say John that said so, but John who.
- b. That is generally used after the words all, some, any, the adjective same, after a superlative, the interrogative uho, and ordinal adjectives; as. "All that hear him."—"The most honourable man that you have mentianed." "Who, that has common sense, will believe it?" "He is the fourth that has fallen."
- c. That is also used when persons form only a part of the antecedent; as, "The men and things that he has studied, have not improved his marals."
- 380. a. The word what must not be employed for that; nor that for what; thus, "They would not believe but what I was guilty," should be, "but that," &c. "We speak that we know," should be, "what we know."
- b. What should not be employed for those which; thus, "All fevers except what," should be, "except those which."—What is sometimes used in the sense of parky; as, "What with anxiety, and what with sickness," that is, "partly with anxiety and partly with sickness."
- c. The sentence, "They would not believe but that I was the guilty person," may be thus explained:—"They would not believe any thing, except that thing, namely, I was the guilty person."
- d. Somewhat is used sometimes—1. As a Noun; as, "He had somewhat to say,"—2. As an Adverb; as, "He spoke in a somewhat harsh manner;" ar, "in umanner rather harsh."—The words represented by a compound pronoun are frequently in different cases; as, "Let us examine what or that which has been sent;" here, that is in the objective, governed by examine, and which is the nominative to has been sent.
- 381. a. The words whichsoever, whatsoever, and however, may be divided by the interposition of the next words: thus, "On whichsoever side he looked," may be expressed, "On which side soever he looked."
- b. The words wheerer (he wha), whaterer, whosever, and however, cannot be divided; we properly say, "Whoter acts so, acts improperly;" "Whatever he does, he does well;" "Whosever committeth sin, is the servant of sin;" "However great he may be."
- z. 61.—382. To prevent ambiguity, the Relative must generally be placed next to its antecedent; thus, "Solomon the son of David who built the temple," implies that David was the builder; but by observing the rule, all ambiguity is avoided; thus, "Solomon who was the son of David built the temple."
- 383. a. When there are two antecedents of different persons, the relative generally agrees with the latter; as, "You are the friend who has often relieved me."
- b. Regard must always be had to the sense intended; thus, "I am the man who command you," means, that I who command you am the man previously mentioned; I who command is here the subject, and man the predicate. But the

- sentence, "I am the man who commands you," signifies, that I am your regular Para. 354.1 commander. Here, I is the subject, and man who commands the predicate.
- c. In Interrogations like the following, the relative and verb must agree with the former nominative; as, "Is if you that has written this letter?" that is, "Is the person who has written this letter you?"
 - d. In Scripture language, and particularly when we address the Deity, the relative frequently agrees with the former of two antecedents; as, " Thou art the Lord, who seest us in all our wars."
 - 384. a. The same antecedent requires the same relative to be preserved throughout the sentence. The following sentence is therefore inaccurate; "I am the father who loves you, that cherishes you, that provides for you;" and should be, "I am the father who loves, who cherishes, who provides."
 - b. The verb must also scree with the same Relative as its nominative throughout b. The verb must also scree with the same Relative as its nominative throughout the sentence; thus, "I am the Lord that maketh all things, that stretcheth forth the beavens above, and spread abroad the carth," should be, "I am the Lord that be beavens above, and spread abroad the Should we, however, samust to the maketh, that stretcheth, and spreadoth." Ec. Should we, however, samust to in the first preceding tentence the phrase "by Myself," then the verbs must be in the first preceding tentence the phrase "by Myself," then the verb must be in the first preceding tentence the phrase "by Myself," that make all things, i.e., by Myself."
 - 385. a. In familiar Saxon speech, we frequently place the preposition last; as, "The man we were speaking of." But in grave composition, the preposition should be placed before the relative; as, "The man of whom we were speaking."
 - b. So, also, "I am displeased with the manner I have spent my time," should be "I am displeased with the manner in which I have spent my time."—Every te, "I am displeased with the manner in which I have spent my time."—Every relative has an antexedent to which it refers, either expressed or implied; as, "Who speaks much of himself, betrays great weakness;" that is, "He who speaks," i.e. -The relative is frequently omitted in Poetry, both in the Nom. and Obj. etc. Obj. cases.
 - 336. a. The word than, being a conjunction, does not govern the relative acho in the objective case; thus, "Than whom," should be, "than he."
 - b. The word than had formerly the simifaction of a preposition, and, as such, e. The word rish and formerly he simulation of a preposition, and, as face, preferred a nonn or pronoun in the objective case; but, as it has lost the meaning, it cases to have the inflance of a preposition.—Millon uses than whom, apparently for the sake of cuphony, for in Par. Lost, b. L. 1, 227, he says—"All leads to the sake of cuphony, for in Par. Lost, b. L. 1, 227, he says—"All leads to the sake of cuphony to the says." but less than he."
 - c. Position of the Relative.—The relatives who, which, that, and what, and their compounds whereir, whister, are always placed before the zero, in whatever, are they may be; as, "He whom you respected is dead;" "Whoever will persever, will cenerally succeed." severe, will generally succeed."

FULE 11. TERES.

LESSON 62.—Exercise 62.—Page 73.

387. a. Transitive verbs govern nouns and pronouns in the Objective case; as, "We admire them;" "You have read Milton."

- b. The verb let is transitive, and accordingly governs an objective case; as, "Let him attend."—Every Transitive verb has an Objective case, expressed or understood.—A whole clause may be the object of an active transitive verb; as, "You see how few of these men are returned."
- c. The objective case should not, if possible, be separated from its verb. This Rule is violated in the following sentence:—"Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his purpose." The sentence should be, "Becket could not better discover his resolution to maintain his purpose, than by attacking so powerful an interest."
- d. In nouns, the nominative case, denoting the subject, precedes the verh, and the objective case, denoting the object, follows the transitive verh; it is this order which determines the sense to be affixed; as, "Alexander conquered Darius." In this sentence, Alexander, the subject, precedes the verb; and Darius, the object, follows the verh. Were we to place Darius before the verb, and Alexander, after it, the relation would be entirely changed.
- e. Personal Pronounds, with the exception of the pronoun it, having a different form for each case, may sometimes be placed either before or after the verb; as, "Him declare I unto you;" or, "I declare Him unto you." Sometimes, however, when the pronoun is placed before its verb, the proper case is disregarded; thus, "He, who were all proper circumstances has the boldness to speak the truth, choose for year friend." In sentences of this kind, the car is very apt to be deceived, on account of the distance between the object and the verb the pronoun he, being the object of the verb choose, must be in the objective case, and the sentence may stand thus, "Choose him for your friend, who, see, Attention must always be paid to the proper case of the pronoun, whether it is placed before or after the verb. "Who should I see the other day but my old friend?" should be, "Whom should I see," &c.
- 388. a. Transitive verbs do not admit a preposition after a them; thus, "I must premise with these circumstances;" should be, "I must premise these circumstances."
- b. A Transitive and an Intransitive Verh should not if possible be connected in the same construction; as, "I have not been able to see and converse with one of those men."
- 389. a. Verbs signifying to allow, ask, bring, deny, envy, fine, give, grudge, lend, offer, pay, promise, send, show, teach, tell, have in familiar language two objective cases (the one direct, the other remote), that which denotes the person being governed by a preposition understood, and the other by the verb; as, "He taught them logic;" that is, "He taught logic to them."
- b. The same verbs also, in the passive voice, are frequently, in familiar conversation, followed by an objective case; as, "They were asked a question." But this mode of expression is not to be recommended in grave composition.

Thus, instead of saying, "They were asked a question;" "He was offered a pardon;" "He was promised her;" it would be better to say, "A question was asked of them;" "A pardon was offered to him;" "She was promised to him."

- c. Other transitives seem to govern sometimes two objectives in apposition; as, "They proclaimed him (by the title of) king;" "God called the firmament (by the name of) heaven."
- 390. a. Neuter verbs do not govern an objective case; nor do Transitive verbs admit a preposition after them; thus, "It repented Him," should be, "He repented." "I must begin with my story," should be, "I must begin my story."

b. Violations or this Rule.—"Go, fiee thee away;" should be, "Go, flee away." "The nearer his successes approached him to the throne;" here, a away." The nearer his successes approached him to the throne; "here, it transitive is noperary to complete the sense; it should be, "The nearer his successes enabled him to approach to the throne." So, also, in the sentence, "Trey have spent their whole time to agree the sucred with the profane chronology," should be, "They have spent their whole time to make the sucred with the sucred." chronology agree with the profane."

c. In such expressions as, "He resided many years;" "He rode several miles;" the words years and miles are governed not by the intransitive verbs, but by a preposition understood; as, "He resided during many years;" "Ho rode for, or through the space of many miles."

d. Some Intransitives, however, govern an objective of words having a kindred meaning; as, "He lived a virtuous life."

- e. Some Intransitives are used transitively when a preposition is annexed; as, "He despaired of success." Such verbs can be used in the Passive; as, "Success was despaired of."—Other verbs, without undergoing any change, are used sometimes as transitive, and sometimes as intransitive; thus, in the sentence, "That conduct becomes him," becomes is transitive; but, in the sentence, "A boy soon becomes a man," becomes is intransitive. The sense alone must, therefore, determine the nature of the verb.
- 391. a. Intransitive verbs do not admit of the passive form; thus, are swerved, was amounted, was gone, should be, have swerved, had amounted; had gone.

b. The expressions have come, are come, have gone, are gone, &c. are both used, but with a difference of meaning. Have, had come, &c. refer to lime and action; are come, are come, &c. refer to state, presence, or advence.

- 392. a. The verb to be, and passive verbs of naming, have the same case after them as they have before them; as, "I am he whom they invited;" "I understand it to be them;" "Homer has been styled the prince of poets."
- b. ILLUSTRATION.—"I am he whom they invited;" hore, am is preceded by the on individual and any and in which they in the street in the street in the individual and also be followed by a nominative, which is he. "Whom do you fancy him to be?" that is, "You-fancy him to be whom?" here, him precedes the web to be, and therefore an objective follows it, which is whom. "It might have been him," should be "he." "Whom do men say that I am?" "It is I: It was they." No well educated person would say, "It is me;" "It is him;" but—"It is I;" "It
- c. Verbs passive of naming are generally considered as having the same case after them as they have before them, but it must be observed that some words are understood; thus, "He was called Thomas;" that is, "He was called by the name of Thomas." "Homer has been styled the prince of poets," that is, "Homer has been styled by the name of the prince of poets." "He has been appointed tutor;" that is, "He has been appointed tutor;" that is, "He has been appointed to the office of tutor." For all practical purposes, however, the Rule given above is sufficiently correct.
- 393. a. Verbs passive are joined to their agents by the preposition by; as, "He was instructed by Thomas."
- b. Violation of this Rule.—"The general tenor of the results of these experiments is opposed to the hypothesis," We may say, "oppose the hypothesis," or "Is contradictory to the hypothesis;" but, if it is intended to retain the verb eppose in the passive voice, the order of the words should be changed as follows: _____ The hypothesis is opposed by the general tenor," &c.
- 304. In familiar language, the Verb in its active form is cometimes used with a passive signification; as, "She was to blame;" "A house to let;" should be, "to be blamed;" "to be ld."

RULE 12. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

LESSON 63.—Exercise 63.—Page 75.

- 395. a. The Subjunctive Mood is employed, when an uncertainty, supposition, condition or dependence of an action or event on something else is expressed, and is generally preceded by if, though, except, lest, unless, or that.
- b. In the Subjunctive, as in every other mood, the verb must be in the present, past, or future tense, according to the sense implied; as, "If the man is poor;" "If the bill was presented;" "If he persevere."
- c. In Concessive Clauses, (that is, those preceded by though or although,) which assume as granted that some thing is or was in existence, the Indicative Form of the verb is used for the Present and Past Tenses, but not for the Suppositional; as, "Though he hears, he does not attend." "Though he was rich, he was not happy." Should I say, "Though he were rich," I should imply, "He was not rich," but, allowing that he should be, he would not be happy. (See 148.)
- 296. a. ILLUSTRATION.—In the Present Tense, a doubt or uncertainty is implied, respecting a fact which may or may not exist at the time of speaking; thus, "If it rains, I shall not go out;" that is, either it does or does not rain at this present time, but which of the two is uncertain. "If the man is poor, deal with him accordingly;" that is, either he is or he is not poor. "If the mail that has arrived contains a letter for me, I shall soon receive it." "If thou art the Son of God;" "If thy right eye offends thee." Here, either he is or is not the Son of God; "If thy right eye offend thee;" Here either he is or is not the Son of God; "If thy right eye offend thee;" the meaning would be, "If thou shouldst be the Son of God;" "If thy right eye should offend thee." Again, suppose a child making a noise near my door, I request my servant to send it away, but if it is my own son, to send him within. Now, had I said, "If he be my son," my words would have implied, "If he should be hereafter my son," which thing involves an absurdity.
- b. The Past Tenses represent a conditional past fact or event, of which the speaker is uncertain; as, "If the bill was presented, it was doubtless paid;" "If the ship did arrire, it was contrary to our expectations;"—here, we are uncertain respecting an event, which, if it ever did take place, must have already taken place.
- c. The Suppositional Tense implies futurity; as, "If he were present, he would concur with me;" that is, "He is now absent, but had he been present, he would have concurred with me." "If you were diligent, you would succeed," denotes that you are not diligent.
- d. The Future Tense denotes a contingent future event, which, if it ever do occur, must occur in some future period; thus, "If the mail contain a letter for me;" that is, "If the mail of to-morrou should contain a letter or me," "If thy son ast bread, wouldst thou give him a stone?" that is, "If thy son should ask bread." "Though He stoy me, yet will I trust in Him; "Intu is, "Though He should stay me." "If He do but touck the hills, they shall smoke;" that is, "If He should do only this thing, namely, touch the hills, they shall smoke."
- e. The more general form of the Sabjunctive Future is the employment of the verb without auxiliaries. In such instances, the verb undergoes no variation in

any of the persons; thus, "If I go, if thou go, if he go." But, where the suxularies should, could, see, are employed, they must be varied in the persons; thus, "If thou shoulds, or woulds go."

f. The principal conjunctions implying condition, supposition, or doubt, are if, Bouph, imlest, except, whether, led.—Lest and that, following a command, and if followed by but, always require the subjunctive future; as, "Take heed lest thou fall;" "If he do but promise, than art safe."

BULE 13. THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

LESSON 64.-Exercise 64.-Page 76.

- 397. a. When two verbs come together, the latter must be in the infinitive mood, when it denotes the object of the former; as, "Study to improve."
- b. When the latter verb does not express the object, but the end, purpose, or something remote, the word for, or the words in order to, are understood; as, "I read to learn;" that is, "I read for to learn," or, "in order to learn; but for, however, is never, in such instances, expressed in good language—Instead of an Infinitive, a Participle is frequently employed; thus, "Heartly confronting difficulties is better than avoiding them."
- c. The Infinitive is frequently governed by adjectives, substantives, and participles; but, in these instances also, a preposition is understood, though never expressed; as, "Eager to tearn;" that is, "eager for to learn," or "for learning;" "A decire to improve;" attriving to improve."—The infinitive sometimes follows as, than, and ought; thus, "It is so high as to be invisible;" "We ought to do it." It is frequently put absolutely, that is, not depending on any verb, and may thus become the nominative to a verb; "To play is pleasant."
- d. The Infinitive Active must not be used for the Infinitive Passive; thus, "That is not proper to say," for " to be said."
- e. Avoid using an Infinitive Mood when the construction requires a hominative and a verb; as, "I am not like other men, to entry the talents they cannot reach;" should be, "I am not like other men, who entry the talents," &c. "That all our doings may be ordered by Thy governance, to do always that is righteous in Thy sight," ought to be, "That all our doings may be so ordered by Thy governance that they may be (always) righteous in Thy sight."
- 203. a. The verbs behold, bid, dare (neuter), feel, hear, let, make, need, observe, perceive, and see, require an infinitive, without the sign to prefixed; as, "I bade him do it;" "I heard him eay it;" and not, "to do it;" "to say it."
- b. But in the passive voice, the same verbs, except let, require the infinitive mood, with the sign to generally prefixed; as, "He was bid to go;" "He was made to run."
- c. Have, when a principal verb, generally requires to after it; as, "He had to send the money."—We can also say, "I feel that it is," or "feel it to be."
- d. Pare, when transitive, has the infinitive with to; as, "He dares him to breathe upon the leaf." Also, the emphatic form of dare intransitive is followed by to; as, "He did not dare to come."—Need, when transitive, may admit to after the room; as, "Ho needed prudered to necced." When intransitive, it is formed like an auxiliary, and is followed by a verb, without the prefix to; as, "He need 30 no forther." (See 162.2, 188.4.)
- 300. a. Instead of the infinitive mood, the present participle is often used after the verbs aroid, begin, behold, cease, feel, find,

hear, mark, observe, perceive, purpose, see and watch; thus, we may say, "He felt it burn;" or "burning;" "I heard him speak;" or "speaking."

The infinitive denotes the simple form, the participle the progressive form.

b. Verbs of affirming, believing, denying, doubting, discovering, knowing, supposing, thinking, wishing, and some verbs denoting the operations of the senses, prefer the word that with a personal verb, and its nominative, instead of the infinitive; thus, instead of saying, "I know him to be a scholar;" "They doubted it to be genuine;" we may say, "I know that he is a scholar;" "They doubted that it was genuine;" or, "They doubted its genuineness."

So also, instead of saying, "He is said to have written a poem;" we may say, "It is said that he has written a poem." "Bills are requested to be paid half-yearly;" better thus, "It is requested that bills (should) be paid half-yearly." - For the Infinitive Present and Project Tenses, see 409. a, b.

RULE 14. THE USE OF THE TENSES.

LESSONS 65. a. & b .- Exercises 65. a. & b .- Page 76.

- L. 65. n.—400. a. In the use of the tenses, care must be taken to employ that tense which properly conveys the sense intended, whether of present, past, or future time; thus, "After I visited Europe I returned to America," should be, "After I had visited, I returned," &c.
 - b. Here, carefully study the Explanation of the Tenses, from 190 to 218.
- c. "After I visited Europe, I returned to America," ought to be had visited, because the action implied by the verb visited was completed before the other past action returned.—Had, signifying possession, must not be used for would; thus, "I had rather do it." should be, "I would rather do it." We frequently hear, "Be that as it will;" it should be, "Be that as it may."—In the beginning of a sentence, the abbrevialed subjunctive is neater than the full form; thus, "Were there no difference," is more general than, "If there were no difference," —A double subjunctive must not be employed in two correspondent clauses; thus, "Had he done this, he had escaped;" should be, "Had he done this, he would have escaped."
- 401. If the verbs are in different Moods and Tenses, the Nominative is generally repeated, when connected by and; as, "I know it and I can prove it."—The Nominative is always repeated, when the verbs are connected by either—or, neither—nor, but, though, although; as, "He promised but he did not perform."—Also when the sentence is Interrogative or Emphatical; as, "Do you say so, and can you prove it?" (See 322.)
- 402. a. An immutable truth must be expressed in the present tense, though quoted with a past observation; as, "Christ said that punishment awaits the wicked;" "Charles asserted that virtue is always amiable." It would be improper to say, "awaited, was."

- b. Here, "Punishment avails the wicked," and "Virtue is always amiable," are considered as immutable truths, and therefore, whether the verbs said and asserted, agreeing with the subjects, Christ and Charles, were in present or part time, the verbs avails and is must be in the present.
- c. But when the thing asserted is not always the same, a past tense must be used to denote past time; and a present to denote a present time; as, "William said that he was very happy:" not, "is very happy." "William says that he is very happy."
- 403. a. The perfect participle, and not the past tense, is used after the tenses of the verbs have and be: as, "I have written;" "It was stolen;" and not, "I have wrote;" "It was stole."
- b. The perfect participle must never be used for the past tense; thus, "He began;" "He run;" "He drunk;" ought to be, "He began;" "He ran;" "He drank."
- 404. a. When the Subjunctive present is used after the words, when, till, before, as soon as, after, the relative time of a future action is denoted; as, "When he arrives, he will be welcome."
- b. The Sabjunctive perfect is used after the same words, to express the completion of a future action or event; as, "He will never be better till be has felt the pange of poverty."
- 405. a. The principal and active verb do, and its participle done, must not supply the place of a neuter or a passive verb; thus, "He does not feel so well satisfied as he ought to do," should be, "as he ought to feel."
- b. But the auxiliary do may supply the place of an active verb; as, "You wrote your exercise much better than you are accustomed to do;" that is, "than you are accurated do do;" that is, "than you are accurated do do;".
- c. VIOLATION OF THIS BUIL.—"This part of knowledge has always been prowing, and will do so till the subject be exhausted." "Do what?" The naxillary do cannot refer to been, for the vest to be does not imply action; nor can we say, "do prowing." The sentence ought to be, "This part of knowledge has been always growing, and will still be so," &c., or, "will continue to grow."
- L. 65. b.—100. In compound tenses, avoid using only a part of a complex tense, which thus conveys no precise meaning without the remainder; thus, "This may serve for any book, that has or shall be published;" should be, "that has been or shall be published."
- 407. a. When the auxiliaries are employed to denote present, past, or future time, care must be taken that the subsequent verb be expressed in the same tense with the antecedent verb containing the auxiliary; as, "He may or can write if he chooses;" "He might or could write if he chose."
- b. In the fermer sentence, may or can trule is in the present tense, and, therefore, the subsequent verb classes must also be in the present tense; in the latter sentence, might er could write is in the past tense, and, therefore, close must be in the rame.

- "It would afford me satisfaction if I could perform it." "It would have afforded me satisfaction, if I could have performed it."
- "It is my desire that you shall come;" "It was my desire that you should come."
- "I shall feel obliged if you can grant;" "I should feel obliged if you could or would grant."

So, also, in the following sentences, "I have that you will come;" "I hoped that you would come." From these instances it will be seen that the indicative corresponds with the subjunctive in the following tenses:—

Indic. Pres. I write . . Subjunc. Pres. when I may, can write.
Past. I wrote . . Past. when I might, could, would, should write.
Fut. I shall or will write. Pres. when I may, can write.

c. Additional instances illustrative of this reld:-

He can, may ask Sub. { if he can, may, hall write. } if he has written's to denote completion.

He might, could ask

(if he could, might, would, &c. write.) if he had written, to denote past time.

He may write
He might write
It would seem

if he is disposed, if he were disposed that I should write

- 408. a. In the Subjunctive Mood, when negation is implied, the past tense is used to denote present time; and the past-perfect to denote past time; thus,
- Sub. "If I had the book,—Pot. I would send it," implies that I have it not.

 Sub. "If I had had the book,—Pot. I would have sent it," refers to part time.

 Sub. "If I have the book,—Ind. I will send it," denotes mere uncertainty;—I may have or may not have it, which of the two I do not know.
- b. In like manner, when the subsequent verb immediately follows the words as if, the past tense is used to denote present time, and the past-perfect to denote past time; as, "He fights as if he contended for life;" "He fought as if he had contended for life."
- "He fights as if he contended, or, were contending for life;" here, fights and contended express two actions that are contemporary, namely, both in present time; and yet, the former is in the present tense, and the latter in the past tense,
- "He fought as if he had contended, or had been contending for life;" here, also, the two actions implied by the words fought and had contended, are contemporaneous, both implying past time; but, the latter verb, on account of its following the words as if, is put in the past-perfect tense.
- 409. a. The Infinitive Present is used to denote a period of time either contemporary with, or subsequent to that implied by the governing verb; as, "From the conversation which I had with him, he appeared to be a man of learning."

The Infinitive Present is also used after the verbs denoting hope, intention, determination, desire, command, or permission; as, "The Apostles were determined to preach the Gospel."

b. The Infinitive Perfect is used to denote a time antecedent to that implied in the governing verb; as, "Kirkstall Abbey appears to have been an extensive building."

- c. ILLUSTRATION.—"From the conversation which I had with him, he appeared to be a man of learning;" here, the verb to be is in the infinitive present, because it is contemporary with its governing verb appeared; that is, happening at the rame time. "The apostles were determined to preach the Gospel;" here, the verb to preach is put in the infinitive present, because the action expressed by the verb to preach is subsequent to its governing verb determined.
- d. "Kirkstall Abbey oppears to have been an extensive building;" here, to have been is antecedent to appears, that is, it relates to a time which was past before the time which is implied by the word appears.

Again, "It would afford me pleasure to do it;" here the infinitive present is used, because the action is not yet performed; the meaning is, "It would afford me pleasure to do it now, or at some future period." It would afford me pleasure to have done it;" here, to have done is antecedent to would afford, and is, therefore, put in the infinitive perfect; the meaning is, "It would now afford me pleasure to have done it some time ogo." "It would have afforded me great pleasure, as often as I reflected upon it, to have been the messenger of such intelligence;" bere, to have been is in the infinitive perfect, because the message is antecedent to the pleasure.—"You ought to do it," implies present duty; "You ought to have done it," implies past duty.

RULE 15. THE PARTICIPLES.

LESSON 66.—Exercise 66.—Page 79.

- 410. a. Participles derived from transitive verbs, govern the objective case; as, "hearing him;" "having praised them."
 - b. Words ending in ing are of four kinds :-
 - I. Participles; as, "He spent his time in reading, studying, walking."
 - 2. Infinitives; as, "To be studying, to be reading," &c.
 - 3. Adjectives; as, " Ho is a reading, observing, reflecting man."
 - 4. Rouns; as," The reading was good;" "The writing was defective."
- c. The Participial form is a convenient variety for an adverb or conjunction and a clause; thus, "On hearing the case," for "When I heard the case."—When a Participie becomes a Neun, it has all the properties of a noun, and is called a Participial Neun. A Participial Neun or Gerundire may have an article before it and the preposition of after it; as, "The wanderings of the Imagination."
- d. Participial adjectives retain the termination, but not the government of participies; when, therefore, they appear to be followed by an objective case, that objective requires the insertion of a preposition; as, "He was most deterring of attention."—The participie is frequently taken obsolutely; as, "Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance."—Such phrases as, "He went a hunting, a straing, a begging" &c. may be considered elliptical; thus, "He went on a hunting excurrion," &c. (See 226. b.)
- 411. a. When the noun following the participle in ing is active, or doing something, the participle is considered a Verbal or Participial Noun, and requires an article before it, and the preposition of after it; as, "In the hearing of the philosopher;" "By the preaching of Paul." Here philosopher is the hearer, Paul the preacher.
- b. When any ambiguity would arise from this mode of construction, the possessive with 's should be substituted for the particle of; thus, " the killing of the gamekeeper," is ambiguous. We cannot say whether the gamekeeper was the killer or the killed. The following expression is clear, " This cannot justify the gamekeeper's tilling the man."

- c. A word used simply as a participle requires neither an article before it, nor the preposition of after it; but, if derived from a transitive verb, it will govern the noun following in the objective case; as, "In hearing the philosopher was heard, the philosopher was heard.
- d. When I say, "In the hearing of the philosopher," the philosopher is active, is the hearer; "In hearing the philosopher," philosopher is passive, was heard; "In hearing of the philosopher," implies hearing something about him.
 - e. A preposition frequently governs a participial clause; as, "After having heard the philosopher;" here, the clause is governed by after, while philosopher is in the objective governed by "having heard."—When a preposition usually follows the participle, the word of is inadmissible; as, "His depending on promises proved his ruin." Here of could not be inserted after depending.
 - 412. a. Participial Nouns perform a double office; first, by governing nouns and pronouns in the possessive case; and secondly, if derived from transitive verbs, by requiring the noun or pronoun following to be in the objective case, without the intervention of the preposition of; as, "Much depends on William's observing the rule, and error will be the consequence of his neglecting it." "Much depends on the rule's being observed."
 - b. "What do you think of my horse's running?" is different to "What do you think of my horse running?" "My horse's running," implies that he did run; but, "my horse running," implies a question whether he shall or shall not run. "I have some recollection of his father's being (in the capacity of) judge;" here father's is the possessive governed by being.
 - 413. a. The active participle must not in general be used for the passive participle; thus, "Money was wanting to defray the expenses," should be, "Was wanted," &c.
 - b. In familiar language, however, the participle ing of ove, miss, want, and a few others, has long been used in a passive sense: as, "Debts are owing;" "A book is missing;" "Some pages are wanting."
 - c. Instead of using the Participle in ing in a passive sense, the Present Passive Participle with being, denoting progress or incompleteness, is now very frequently employed; as, "The house is being built;" "The work is being printed;" "The arrears were being collected." (See 167. e.)
 - d. The following sentences are incorrect;—"Young men educating for the Christian ministry;" should be, "Young men preparing, studying, or under instruction, for the Christian ministry." "I want my coat mending, repairing," &c., should be, "I want my coat (to be) mended, repaired," &c.

RULE 16. ADVERES.

LESSONS 67. a. & b.—Exercises 67. a. & b.—Page 83.

L. 67. a.—414. Position of the Adverbs.—Adverbs require a certain position in sentences, and generally a certain form. They must be placed near the words whose signification they modify, that the sense may be exactly conveyed.

They are generally placed,—1. Before Adjectives,—2. after Verbs that are single, but sometimes before them;—3. between the Auxiliary and the Verb;—4. In Passive Verbs after the Auxiliary when there is one, and frequently after the last, when there are two or more.—5. When there are several Adverbs and several auxiliaries, the adverbs must be intermixed.—6. In Exclamatory expressions, the Adverbs generally introduce the sentence.—7. The negative not is placed before the Participle, whether it is active or passive, and before an Infinitive Mood.

ILLEFRATION.—The Adverh is placed—1. Before adjectives; as, "A truly diligent man."—2. After a verb when it is single, and after the object of a transitive verb; as, "He speaks correctly;" "He loves him sincerely." Esmetimes, however, it preceds the verb; as, "He really respects him."—3. In active and neuter verbe, where there is one auxiliary, it is placed either between the auxiliary and the verb, or after both; as, "He has diligently employed his time;" "He has spoken veil." When there are two auxiliaries, it is placed either between the has poken veil." When there are two auxiliaries, it is placed either between them or after both; as, "He might easily have known the result;" "He should have carneally arged it upon him." But sometimes, when saything emphatical is intended, it precedes the auxiliaries; as, "And certainly you must have known."—i. In passive verbs, the adverb is generally placed offer the auxiliary, when there is one, and frequently after the lad, when there are two or more; as, "Ho was graciously received;" "He might have been correctly instructed in that science."—5. When there are exercial adverbs, and several auxiliaries to the same verb, the adverbs must be intermixed with the auxiliaries; as, "I have always been very much perplexed under these circumstances,"—6. In interregative and exclamatory expressions, the adverbs generally introduce the tentence; as, "How completely this most amishle of human virtues had taken possession of his soul."—7. A negative adverb is placed before the participle, whether is is active or passive; as, "Not having heard;" "Not having been seem."

415. a. Care must be taken in the position of the word only; if I say, "Only he was poor;" I mean, there was only one objection to him—"He was poor." If I say, "He only was poor," I mean, that "He was the only individual that was poor." If I say, "He was only poor," I mean, that "He was the only individual that was poor." If I say, "He was only poor," I may mean, that "He was poor and nothing else." Only follows the nouns and pronouns to which it refers; as, "Him only have I known: "The man only was discovered." When there is a negative, only precedes the noun and pronoun: as, "Not only the steep, but also the horse;" and, also, when it refers to one of two words indifferently, as, "Theism can be opposed only topicylineismor atheism." When it refers to a whole clause, it is generally placed before it; as, "By greatness, I do not mean, only the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of the whole view." These observations will cenerally be applicable to the words merely, solely, chiefly, first, at least, and a few others.

b. "It is not the business of virtue, to extirpate the affections of the mind, but to regulate them," should be, "It is the business of virtue, not to extirpate the affections," &c. "It is not my intention to compel, but to advise," should be, "It is my intention not to compel, but to advise." "I do not think that he was averse to the office, nor do I believe that it was unsuited to him." Here, as do think and do letter are nearly synonymous, one must be rejected, and or substituted for nor; thus, "I do not think either that he was averse to the office, or that it was unsuited to him."

c. When an ordicle is used, it must be placed either before the adverb or after both adverb and adjective; as, "On a rather cursory perusal of the book;" Too great a variety."

d. In the following example, jointly is not in its proper situation; "The Celtiberi, in Spain, borrowed that name from the Celtae and Ibiri, from whom they were jointly descended," "Jointly with whom?" It should be, "from whom (the Celtae and Ibiri) jointly they were descended."

416. a. The adverb enough is always placed after the adjective which it modifies, and the adjective and the adverb after the substantive; as, "A house large enough."

- b. The adverb never must not be used for ever; thus, "Charm he never so wisely;" should be, "Charm he ever so wisely."—Likewise ever must not be used for never; thus, "We seldom or ever see him;" should be, "We seldom or never;" the speaker intending to say, rarely, or rather at no time see him.
- c. The words never, sometimes, often, always, generally precede the verb; as, "Inever was there;" "He always speaks." But they may either precede or follow an auxiliary; as, "He was never allowed;" or, "He never was allowed to be idle."
- 417. a. Avoid using e'er (ever) for ere (before) and the reverse; or the prep. to for the adverb too (signifying addition or excess); or the prep. of for the adverb off.
- b. The adverb off is employed to denote distance, separation; as, "The house is two miles off;" "He took off his hat;" "The affair is off;" "The fever is going off."—The preposition of denotes source, author, from, possession, &c.; as, "God is the creator of the world." "Some of them." "The house of Thomas."

We say—Better off; badly off; well off; poorly off; denoting a prosperous or poor condition. We also say—"I think better of him;" "meanly of him;" "well of him," in the sense of respecting or concerning him.

- 418. a. The adverbs hence, thence, whence, do not require from before them, as each of them implies that preposition; thus, "Whence did you come?" signifies, "from what place?"
- b. Hither, thither, and whither were formerly used after verbs of motion; as, "Come hither; go thither." This mode is now considered too formal, and is consequently restricted to solemn occasions. At present, the adverbs here, there, where are employed not only after verbs of motion, but also of rest; as, "He came here;" "We rode there;" "He dwells there."
- **L. 67.** b.—419. a. Adverbs must not be used in *Prose* instead of *Nouns* and *Pronouns*; thus, "Since when?" "The then ministry," though very common, are incorrect. They should be, "Since what time?" "The ministers of that period."
- b. The Adverbs when, where, whence, how, and why are frequently, in common language, used almost redundantly after nouns of lime, place, manner, and cause: thus, "State the hour when (in which) it happened." "The reason why he did it, was this;"—better thus, "The reason for his doing it was."
- c. The phrases, a little while, worth while, somehow, anyhow, anywhere, nowhere, are confined to colloquial language, and are not adapted to grave composition. In poetry, then is frequently used for a noun; as, "Till then, who knew the force of those dire arms?"
- 420. a. Adverbs must not be used for Adjectives; thus, "They hoped for a soon and prosperous result," should be, "for an early and prosperous result." "The fleet arrived safely," should be, safe; as, the safety of the fleet and not the manner of arrival is

- intended. "She received the diamonds safely," should be, safe. (See 366.)
- b. We should avoid the immediate sequence of two words in ly; thus, "He acted exceedingly indiscreetly," should be, "rery indiscreetly," or "with the greatest indiscretion." (See 365. c.)
- 421. a. When no reference to place is intended, the adverb where must not be used for a relative and a preposition; as, "They framed a protestation, where (should be, in which) they repeated all their former claims."
- b. But when there is reference to place, the adverb where may be employed; as, "Tell me where it happened."
- c. The compounds of here, there, where, as, herein (in this), therein (in that), wherein, hereby, thereby, whereby, kerrof, thereof, whereof, are frequently used in familiar language for a noun or pronoun and a preposition.
- 422. When the adverb there is used, either as an exploive or as an emphatical word, it precedes the verb and the nominative noun; as, "There is a man at the door." In this clarse, there may be omitted, and the phrase stand thus, "A man is at the door." "There the wiched cease from troubling, and there the weaty are at rest." In this sentence the adverb there is emphatical. When there is applied in its strict sense, it generally follows the verb and the nominative case; as, "The man stands there."

RULE 17.

- 423. a. A Negation, in English, admits only one negative word; thus, "He has not done nothing," should be, "He has done nothing," or, "He has not done any thing." Double negatives are, therefore, improper when negation is intended.
- b. Two negatives are, in general, equivalent to a weak offirmative; as, "Nor did they not perceive him," means, "They did perceive him." They are not, however, equivalent to an affirmative in every instance; for, when I say, "His manners were not inelegant," if I do not accompany the expression by a peculiar emphasis, I may imply only a moderate degree of the quality.
- c. The intervention of only, which is equivalent to a distinct clause, preserves, the negation; as, "He was not only illiberal, but he was coverous;" that is, "He was both illiberal and coverous."
- d. No is the opposite to res, and must never be employed with reference to a verb or a participle; thus, "Whether be can go or no," should be, "Whether he can go or no," No, used as an adverb of degree, is connected with a comparative; as, "No better." No, prefixed to a noun, is an adjective; as, "No man." (331, j.)
- c. Not let it equivalent to two negatives, and Is a weak affirmative; as, "Not but that the situation has some advantages."—Council but is equivalent to Must; as, "He cannot but be unhappy."
- f. Violation of the Rule.—"Ariosto, Tasso, Galileo, no more than Raphael, were not born in republics;" should be, "Neither Ariosto, Tasso, nor Galileo, any more than Raphael, was born in a republic."

BULE 18. PREPOSITIONS.

LESSONS 68 to 70. a. to c.—Exs. 68 to 70. a. to c.—Page 85.

- 2. 68. 424. a. Prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the Objective case, and are generally placed before the words which they govern; as, "Without industry there can be no excellence;" "He was esteemed by us."
- b. The prepositions to and for are often understood, both in poetry and in familiar language, before pronouns; as, "Give me a pen;" that is, "Give a pen to me." "Woe is me;" that is "to me." The prepositions are also frequently omitted before nouns denoting time, space, or dimension; as, "Twice a year;" that is, "during the year." "He ran five miles;" that is, "for or through the space of five miles."
- c. An adjective must not supply the place of a preposition and a noun; thus, "A desk five feet long," should be, "in length." "A boy of ten years old," should be, "ten years of age."
- 425. a. The preposition should in formal composition be placed immediately before the relative which it governs; as, "He is a person to whom I am much attached."
- h. In familiar language, however, the preposition is frequently placed after the relative; as, "This is the man whom we were speaking of." (See 385.)
- 426. a. A preposition must not be separated from the nown or pronoun whose relation it expresses. Thus, "The ignorance of the age in mechanical arts, rendered the progress very slow, of invention;" should be, "rendered the progress of invention very slow."
- b. A preposition and an active verb are not elegantly connected with the same noun; thus, "He spoke to and advised him," should be, "He spoke to him and advised him."
- c. Two Prepositions must not be connected with the same noun, if any ambiguity would arise, or the sentence be rendered inelegant. But, in other respects, this mode is allowable; as, "A suspension of, or deviation from, the known laws of nature."
- 427. a. Different relations and different senses must, of course, be expressed by different prepositions. Thus, we say, "He discourses upon the subject with great fluency."
- b. The same relation must not, therefore, be expressed by two different prepositions in the same clause; thus, "The combat between thirty French against thirty English," should be, "The combat between thirty French and thirty English."

For the use of Prepositional Phrases, see 225. c.

428. a. When prepositions are annexed to nouns, they are generally the same as those annexed to the verbs from which

the nouns are derived; as, "A correspondence with;" "To

correspond with."

Eo, also, "An adherence to anything;" "To adhere to anything; " "Expalsion from a place;" "To expel from a place; " "To expel from a place; " "To expel from a place; " "To intrude one's fell into the offices of government." godely whatever; " "To intrude one's fell into the offices of government."

b. Before different divisions of time, we use on before a day, in before a greater division, and at before a smaller division; as, "On Tuesday, in March, in 1838, at seven o'clock in the greater

c. The names of Islands, edies, and towns (but not of rivers), which might be placed in apposition, are sometimes connected by of: Bs, "In (the Island of) limits in "In (the city of) Iondon;" "In (the town of) Hull;" "Near (the limits;" "In (the city of) Iondon;" "In (the town of) Hull;" "Near (the limits) Thames."

420. a. The Idiom (that is, the regular syntactical structure)

of our language requires particular prepositions to be used, after certain words and phrases; as, "Abhorrence of;" adapted to." "dependent man"; "adapted to:" "dependent upon."

b. To assist the student in the proper application of these words, he is furnished, in the next page, with a copious List of nearly all the words of the Language in fractal are, with the supropriate proposition annexed.

A List of Words, with appropriate Prepositions annexed :-

Abandoned to his fate, I by all. Abatement from the price; of a shilling in the pound on a book. Abhorrence of. Abide in, at, with. Abjuration of. Able in discussion. Abound in, with. Abridge of, from. Abscond from. Absolve from. Absorbed in. Absent from. Abstain from. Abstinent in his diet. Abstract from. Abusive to. Acceded to. Accept of. Acceptable to. Access to. Accessible to. Accessory to. Accidental to. Accommodated to, with. Accompanied with, by. Accomplished in. Accord with, when neuter; to, when trans. Accordance with. According to. for. Accountable to a person Accredited to. Accurate in. Accused of a crime by any one. Accustom to. Acquaint with. Acquiesce in. Acquire by practice with difficulty. Acquit of. Active us. Adapted to a thing, for a purpose. Add to. Addicted to. Address to. Adept in, at. Adequate to.

Adhere to. Adherent of. Adhesive to. Adjacent to. Adjoin to. Adjourn to. Adjudge to. Adjunct to. Adjusted to. Admirable for. Admission (access) to; (entrance) into. Admit of. Admitted to. Admonish of. Adorned with. Adroit in. Adulterate with. Advance against, towards. Advantage over, of. Advantageous to. Adverse to. Advert to. Advise with. Advocate (nonn) for, of. Affable in. Affected in manners, by events. Affectionate to. Affection for. Affianced to. Affinity to, between. Affix to. Afflicted with. Affrighted at. Afraid of. Agent for. Aggravated at a thing, by a person. Aghast at. Agitated by. Agree with persons, for a thing; to things proposed by others; agree upon things among themselves; as, "They quickly ngreed upon the conditions." Agreeable to. Agreement between. Aided by.

Aim at. Akin to. Alarmed at Alien to. Alienate from. Alight from, on, at. Alive to. Allege against. Allegiance to. Alliance with. Allotted to. Allowable for a person, in a thing. Allude to. Allured by. Alteration in a thing. Altercation between. Altered for the better. Alternate with. Alternative to. Amalgamate *with.* Amazed at. Ambitious of. Amenable to. Amerce in. Amonnt to. Amuse with. Analogy to, with, between; as," The body nolitic bore no analogy to the natural;" "Some analogy beticeen the customs." Angry at, for, with. Animadvert on. Animate with, at. Animosity against person. Animosity between two. Annex to. Announced to. Annoyed at, with. Anointed with. Answer to, for. Answerable to a person for. Antidote to, against. Antipathy to, against.

Anxious for, about.

Apart from.

Apology for.

Apostasy from. Appalled at. Apparent to. Appeal to. Appended to. Appertain to. Appetite for. Applicable to. Apply to a person, far a thing. Appoint to. Apportioned to. Apposite for. Appreciated by. Apprehensive of. Apprized of. Approach to. Appropriate to. Approve of. Approximate to. Apt (fit) for, (clever) in. Aptitude for. Arbitrary in conduct. Ardent for office, in work Arm with, against, Arraigned for a crime. Arrayed with, against. Arrested for debt. Arrive at Hull, in the steamer. Arrogant in conduct. Ascend above. Ascendant orer. Ascribe to. Ashamed of. Ask or inquire of a perron, for something we want; respecting something we wish to hear of. Aspire to, after. Assembled for, Assent to. Assessed at. Assiduous in. Assigned to. Assimilate to. Assist with money, in a matter. Associate with, and cometimes to after an objective case; as, "The prodent monarch associated Titus to the full powers of the imperial dignity." Assure of. Astonished at Astounded at.

Atone for. Attach to. Attain to. Attend(listen) to, (wait) upon, at. Attendance on, upon. Attentive to. Attracted to. Attributed to. Attributive of. Austere in. Authority for, over. Auxiliary to. Avnilable for. Availed of: Avenge on. Averse to. Aversion to a man, from his conduct. Avert from. Awake to. Awarded to him for conduct. Aware of. Awkward in. Backward in. Badly off. Baffled in, with. Balk of. Banish from. Bare of. Barter with a person for something. Bark at. Based upon. Bathed in, with. Bawl at. Be in. at. Bear with; away; off; Beat off an enemy. - against the shore. Beautify with. Beckon to. Becloud with. Bedaub with. Bedeck with. Bedewed with. Beg of. Begirt with. Beguile of. Beguiled into a thing, by a person. Believe in, sometimeson. Belong to. Beneficial to. Benevolent to. Bent on, spon.

Benumbed with. Bequeath to. Bereft of. Besieged by. Besmeared with. Bespangled with. Bespattered with. Bestow upon, on. Betray to a person; into anything; as," Judas betrayed his Master to the rulers:" "He was betraved into the hands of his enemies." Better off (417). Beware of. Bewildered by. Biassed in opinion. Bigoted in opinion. Bind to, in, around, about. Blame for. Blended with. Blessed with, in. Blind to. Blush at, for. Boast of. Boggle at. Border upon, on. Borrow of, from. Bound in honour by ties. Bounded by. Brag of. Breakfast on. Burdened with. Buried in. Burn with. Burst with. Busy in. Buy of, for. L. 69.—Calculate upon a thing. Calculated (fitted) for. Call on, upon, at, for; as, "We call on or tipon a person, at a house, for a thing." Callons to. Candid in. Capable of. Capacity for. . Capricious in. Care for. Careful of, in. Carp at. Carry into, to, for. Carry on, out, through,

Cast up an account. --- on a shore. away; cast down. Catch at. Cantion against. Cautious of. Cavil at. Celebrated for. Cement with, to. Censurable for. Certain of. Chagrined at. Change for the worse, from one thing to another. Characterized by. Characteristic of. Charge to, with, on. person or agent is charged with a thing; and a thing is charged on a person or agent. Charitable to. Charmed with. Chastised by, for. Cheat of. Cheered with. Circumspect in. Civil to. Clamorous against. Clash against, with, Clasp to. Cleanse from. Clear of, from. Cleave to. Clever in. Cling to. Clog with. with. Close (adj.) to, (verb) Clothed in. Cloy with. Clnmsy in, at. Coalesce with, into. Codicil to a will. Coequal to. Coeval with. Cognizable to. Cognizance of. Coheir with a person to an estate. Cohere to. Coincide with. Coincidence in opinion. between two. Collateral with. Combat (noun) between two, (verb) with difficulties.

Commemorative of. Commensurate with. Comment on. Commiserate with. Commit to, against, Common to. Communication between. Comparable to. Compare with, in respect to quality; to, by way of illustration; thus, "He compared himself with that great man;" " Anger may be compared to fire." Compatible with. Compelled to. Compensated for his loss. Compete with. Competent for. Complain of a thing to a person. Complain against any one. Complaisant to. Complete with. Compliance with. Complied with. Composed of. Comprehended in. Comprised in. Compute at. Conceal from. Concede to. Conceited in his opinions. Concerned at, about a thing, for a person, in an affair. Conclude from. Conclusive of. Concur with a person. - in any thing. Condemned to, for. Condescend to. Condole with. Conduce to. Confederated with. Confer on, upon (the receiver of a gift), (to conduce) to, (to compare, to converse) with; as, 1." He conferred an honour upon him." 2. "It confers

to the strength of the union." 3. "Adoniconferred with Joab." Confess to. Confide in. Confined to. Confirmed in. Conflict with. Conformable to. Conformity to, with, between. Confound with. Confront with. Confused with. Congenial to. Congratulate upon, on, Conjoined with. Connect with, to. Connive at. Conscious of. Consecrate to. Consent to. Consequent upon. Consign to. Consist of, to be comnosed; in, to be comprised; as, "The land consists of plains and valleys;""Theirskill consists only in a certain manner which they have affected." Consistent with. Console for. Consonant to. Conspicuous for. Conspire against. Constant in. Constrain to. Contact with. Contaminated in life, by his errors. Contemporary with. Contemptible for. Contemptuous against a person. Contend with, against, for. Contented with. Contest with, Contiguous to. Contingent upon. Contrary to. Contrast with, between. Contribute to. Contribution of a person to an institution.

Control over.7 Control over. Convenience of. Convenient to, for. Converge to. Dead to. Conversant with men, Deaf to. in or with things. Convert to. Convict of a crime; convicted in a penalty. Convince of. Convulsed with. Co-operate with. Co-ordinate (adj.) to. Copartner with. Cope with. Copy from, after; as, "A painter may copy " An from life;" obedient child copies after his parent." Cordial to. Corollary of. Correct in. Corrective of. to, Correlative (adj.) (noun) of. with (a Correspond friend), (to suit) to. Correspondence with. (suit-Correspondent 6 Let able) to; as, your behaviour be correspondent to what you profess." . Corrupted by a person, in his morals, with those sentiments. Coupled with. Courteous in behaviour. Covered with. Coveted by a person, for comething. Corctons of. Cram with. Craving for. Crouched to. Crowded with. Crowned with. Crucl to. Cured of Curious in. Causary in-Customary for. Dabble with in Dally with. Dash ocainst, at. Date from. Daub with.

Daunted at things, by Deprive of. persons. Derive from. Dawn upon. Dazzle with. Deafen with. Deal in a thing, with a person. Dear to a person, at a price. Debar of, from. Debased by. Decide on, upon. Decisive in his opinion on a matter. Decked with. Declare against. Decorated with. Decorous in conduct. Decoved by a person into vice. Dedicated to. Deducible from. Deduct from. Defective in. from Defend others ourselves against. Defer to. Deficient in. Deformed in. Defrauded by a person. of something. Degraded from his rank. Dejected in looks, by something. Deliberate upon a matter. Delicacy in. Delight in, with. Delinquent in accounts. Deliver from. Deluded in. Deluged with. Demanded of. Demised to. Demonstrate to. Demur at, to. Denounce against a person, on a thing. Denuded of. Depart from. Depend upon, on. Dependent on; but independent of. Depicted in lively colours on cauvas. Deposit in.

Depraved in morals. Depressed in spirits. Derogation, a lessening from, taking away of. Derogatory to. Descant on, upon. Descendant of. Descended from. Descriptive of. Deserted by him, for some other. Deserving of. Design for. Desirable for. Desirous of. Desist from. Despair of. Despite of. Despoil of. Destine for. Destitute of. Destructive of. Detach from. Detained by. Detected in a crime by a person. Deter from. Determine on, upon. Detract from. Developed by. Deviate from. Devised to. Devoid of. Devolve on, upon. Devoted to. Devout in. Dexterous in, at. Dictate to. Die of a disease, or the cause of death; as, " He died of consumption:" by, before instrument death; as, "He died by the sword," "by famine;" for, when it signifies to suffer for another; as, "Christ died for us." Differ from a person or thing. Differ in opinion. Difference between.

Different from.

Difficulty in.

Diffident of.

present.

Disrelish for.

Digress from. Dilate upon. Dilatory in. Diligent in. Diluted with. Diminution of. Dine on something. at a place. Disabled from acting. - for a thing. Disagree with (but we say, "I disagree to your proposal"). Disagreeable to. Disappointed of a thing when we cannot get it; in a thing when we have it and find it not to answer our expectations. Disapprove of. Disastrous to. Disburden of. Discarded from. Discern between. Discharged from. Disconsolate at. Discontented with, at. Discourage from. Discouragement to. Discourse upon, on, about. Discourteous to a person, in behaviour. Discreet in. Discriminate between. Disengage *from*. Disentangle from. Disgusted at, with. Dishonest in dealing. Dishonourable to. Disinclined to. Disjoined from. Dislike to. Disloyal to. Dismayed at. Dismissed from. Disobedient to. Dispense with.

at his conduct.

Dispossess of.

Dispose of an estate.

thing.

Disqualify for, from.

of one absent. Dissatisfied with. Dissent from. Dissimilar to. Dissolnte in. Dissuade from. Distant from. Distasteful to. Distinct from. Distinguish one from another; between two. Distracted with. Distressed at a thing. Distrustful of. Disturbed by. Dive into. Diverge from. Divert from. Divested of. Divide between two, among three or more, into parts. Dizzy with. Doat on, upon. Domineer over. Doubt of. Doubtful of. Drain from. Dream of. Drenched with. Dubious of. Due to. Dull of hearing, work. Dwell in the country, at a town. Dwell among persons, upon a subject. Eager in a pursuit, for distinction. Eager after, or of something. Earnest in his labours. Eased of. Easy of access, about anything, to give. Displeased with a person, Economical of time. Effective for. Eject from. Disposed to indulgence. Elated with, at, Elicit from. Dispute with a person. Eligible to office, for a on or about somehouse. Elope from a place with a person.

Emanate from. Disrespectful to a person Embarked on board a ship for America, in fruitless undertaking. Embarrassed in his circumstances, by many difficulties. Embellished with. Embittered against. Emboldened by. Emerge from. Eminent for. Employ in, upon a work, at a place. Empty of. Emulous of. Enamoured with a per-Enamoured of his own WAYE Enchanted with. Enclosed with. Encompassed by. Encouraged by. Encouragement to, in. Encroach upon, on. Encumbered with. Endeared *to*. Endeavour after, when a noun follows it. Endowed with. Endued with. Endurance of. Enemy to. Enfectiled by. al Engaged with a person. in, on a work. for a time. Engraved on. Engrossed by. Enhanced by. Enjoin upon. Enjoined upon. Enlarge (verb, int.) upon. Enlisted in. Enlivened by. Enough of. Enraged at. Enraptured with. Enriched by. Enshrine in. Enslave to. Ensnared by. Entailed upon. Entangled in. Entwined with, upon,

Enter upon.]

Expulsion from. Expunge from. Enter upon, into. Extort from. Entertained with. Extract from. Entitle to. Extravagant in. Entrance into. Extricate from. Enveloped in. Exult in, over. Envious of. Epidemic on a people, Fade from. in a place. Fag at. Fqual to, with. Equi-distant from. Equipped in, for. Faint with. Faithless to. Equivalent to. Fanivocal in. Erase from. Err in. Escape from. Esponse to. Essential to. Established in the mind, on a rock. Esteemed for. Estimated at-Estrange from. Evasive in. Even with. Evident to. from, (v.crb) Exact (adj.) in. Exasperated at, against. Excel in. Except from. Execption to a rule or statement. Excited by. Excluded from. Exclusive of. Exculpate from. from, (rerb) I.xcuse (noun) for. Exempt from. Exhausted with. Exonerate from. Expatiate on. Expect from. Expelled from a place, by a person or thing. Expensive in his habits. Expert in; ns, "Expert in surgery;" but at, before an active participle: as, " Expert at discerning truth from falsehood. Exposed to Expostulated with. Expressed with clearnes. Expressive of.

Foreign to. Forgetful of. Fortify with. Failed in his affairs, of obtaining a thing. Fall under, from, upon, Familiar, Familiarized to, with; an object is Fret at. familiarized or familiar to us; but we are familiar with it and with persons. Famous for. Fascinated with, by. Fatal to. Fatigued with. Favourable to. Favoured with. Fawn upon, on. Fearful of. Feed upon, on, with. Fertile in expedients. Fervent in. Fickle in. Fight with, against, for. Filch from. Fill with, up. Fire at an object, fired with the wish. Firm in purpose, to a person. Fit for. Fix upon a place, in the mind. Fixed in his purpose. Flee from one place to another. Flinch from. Flippant in. Flirt with. Float upon. Finent in speech. Finshed with victory. Fly above, beyond, from. Foam with, at. Foiled in his attempts. Followed by, for. Fomented by. Fond of.

Fondness for. Formidable to. Founded upon, on; but when the superstructure may be conceived as in some measure sunk within anything that supports it, we use in; as, "The system is founded in truth." Fraught with. Free from. Freight with. Friendly to. Frighten with. Frown at, on. Frugal in his habits. Fruitful in. Fruitless of. Fugitive from. Full of. Furious in. Farnished with. Gained by. Gallant in action. __' to ladies. Gape at. Garnish with. Gandy in dress. Gaze at, on, upon. Get by. Gibe at. Gifted with. Gird on. Give occasion to persons for remarking. Glad of, at. Glance at an object. _ orer a page. Glare at. Glide along. Glitter willi. Glory in. Glow with. Glut with. Go beyond. Good for. Gorge with. Graced with. Gracious to. Graft in. Grant to. Grapple with.

Grasp at, Grateful to a person, for any favour. Greedy after, of. Grieve at, for. Grope for. Grounded in truth, on a Grovel to a superior, in a thing. Growl at. Grumble at. Guarantee for. Guard against a person. from injury. Guide for conduct, to a place. Guilty of. L. 70. a. Habituate to. Haggle with. Hanker after. Happen in, at, to, by; as, Happened in a place, at any time, to a person, by chance. Hasty in. Hateful to. Healed of. Hear from, of, by. Hearty in. Heedful of. Heedless consequences. Held in, at, by; as, "He was held in honour;" "The meeting was held at a place, by the conspirators.' Hesitate at. Hide from. Hinder from. Hinge upon. Hint at. Hold good in a case, Hold of; as, " He took hold of you." Honoured with. Hope for. Hopeful of. Hospitable to. Hostile to. Hover over. Humane in conduct. Hurl at. Hurtful to. Hush up (adv.). Hypocritical in. Idle at work.

Ignorant of. Illiberal in remarks, to a person. Illustrated by. Illustrious for. Imbibe from. Imbittered against person. by the prospect. - at the recollection. Imbued with, Immerged into. Immersed into. Immigrate into. Immured in. Impaired by. Impart to. Impartial in his decisions. Impatient of. Impelled by. Impend over. Imperative upon, in. Imperfect in. Imperious to persons, in conduct. Impertinent to. Implant in. Implicated in, by. Impose upon. Impregnated with. Impressed (active) upon, (passive) with. Imprint on. Improved by. Impute to. Inaccessible to. Inadequate to. Inapplicable to. Inaptitude for. Incapable of. Incapacity for. Incensed against, at a on account of, by his conduct. Incentive to. Incidental to. Incited to action, by a person. Incline to. Inclose in. Include in. Incommensurate with. Incommode with. Incompatible with. Incompetent to, for. Inconsistent with.

Inconsolable for Inconstant to. Incontrollable in. Inconvenient *to.* Incorporate into, when active; incorporate with, when neuter or passive; as, "The Romans incorporated conquered countries into their own government;" "Copper was incorporated with silver." Incrust with. Inculcate on, upon. Incumbent upon. Incumbered with. Indebted to. Indecent in. Indefatigable in. Independent of. Indicative of. Indifferent to. Indignant at. Indispensable to. Indisposed towards. Indoctrinate with. Indolent in. Induct into. Indulge with, when a thing is not habitual, but in when habitual; as," Heindulged himself with a glass of wine;" "Heindulges himself in sloth." Indulgent to. Inebriate with, Ineffective for. Inefficient for. Inexpert in. Infamous for. Infatuated with. Infect with. Infectious to. Infer from. Inferior to. Infest with. Infirm in. Inflamed with. Inflated with.

Inflexible in.

Influence over, with, on,

in; as, "The captain

had no instuence with

or over "his men;

Inflict on.

"Arguments had no influence on the jury, in the matter." Inform of, about, concerning, against. Infringe on. Inforiate with. Infuse into. Ingenious in. Ingenuous in. Inberent in. Inimical to. Initiate into a place of reception, in an art or ecienco. Initiation into. Injured by. Injurious to. Innocent of. Innocuous to. Inoculate with. Inordinate in. Inquire of a person, concerning a matter or person, for some-thing, into the truth. some-Inroad into. Insatiable in. Inscribe with. Insensible to. Inseparable from. Inserted in. Insinuate into. Insipid in, Insist *upon*. Insolent to. Inspection (prying ex-amination) into, (superintendence) orer. Inspire with. Instil into. Instruct in. Instructive to. Instrumental in. Insubordinate to. Insufficient for. Insult over, to. Insuperable to. Insupportable to. Insusceptible of. Intangible to. Intelligible to. Intent upon, on, Intercourse with, between. Interested in. Interfere with. Interleaved with

Intermatry with. Intermingle with. Intermix with. Interpose between. Intersect with. Intersperse among. Intervene between. Interweave with. Intimate with. Intimidate by, with. Intolcrable to. Intoxicate with. Intrench upon. Intrigue with. Introduce into, to. Intrude upon a person, into an enclosed place, upon anything not enclosed. Intrust to. Inundate with. Inured to. Invaluable for. Invective against. Inveigh against. Inveigle into. Invested with, in. Inveterate against a person, in habits. Invisible to. Invited to. Involve in. Irrelevant to. Irrespective of. Irresponsible to, for. Irreverent ic. Irritated against a person, by his conduct. Irruption into a place, by an enemy. Jealous of. Jeonardy for, by. Jest at. Join with, to. Joy in. Judge of. Judicious in. Justification of. Keen in. Keep within, Kick al. Kind to. Kindle at. Kneel to. Knock at a door, for semething. Know something of a person.

Known to, for, by. Labour at work, for wages. Lack of. Laden with. Lame of. Land at. Languish for. Laugh at a man for his folly. Lavish of. Lax in. Lazy at work. Lean on, against, (incline) to. Leavened with. Leisure for. Lenient to, towards. Level (adj.) with, (verb) Liable to, for. Libel on. Liberal to. Liberate from. Light upon. Liken to. Limited in income, to a certain mode by circumstances. Listen to, for. Live in, at, upon, on, with, among, by; as, "Live in a house, at a place, upon vegetables, with his friends, among the mountains, by labour," Loaded with. Long for, after. Look on, upon, at a present object, for an absent one, after a distant one, above the earth, beyond him. Lord of an estate, &c. When lord signifies to domineer, it is rometimes followed by over; as, "He lorded over them." Made of clay, for use, by a person, Maimed in limbs, for life, by accident, Make much of. Malice against, Manifest to many, by several proofs.

Manly in. Mark with. Marry to him, for his riches. Martyr for a cause, to a disease. Marvel at. Masculine in. Material to. Meddle with. Mediate between. Meditate upon. Meet (verb) with, (adj.) Memorable for. Menace with. Merciful to. Merge into. Metamorphosed into. Methodical in. Militate against. Mindful of. Mingle in. Miserable in. Mistrustful *of* . Mistrustless of. Mitigation of. Mix with, among. Moved at, with, by. Muffled in. Murmur at, against. Muse over. Muzzle with. Natural to. Necessary for. Necessity for a thing; the necessity of the case. Need of. Needful for. Neglectful of. Negligent in. Nibble at. Nod to. Nonconforming to. Notable for. Notorious for, in. Nourish with. Nutritions for. Obedient to. Object to, against. Obligatory on. Obliged to, for. Oblivious of. Obnoxious to. Obsequious to. Observance of. Obstacle to.

Obstinate in. Obstructive to. Obtrude upon, on. Occupied by persons, with things, in busi-Occur to. Odious to. Offend (neut.) against the law. Offended (pass.) at a thing, by a person. Officiate for. Officious in. Offensive to. Offer to. Ooze out. Operate upon, on, against. Opposed to a man, in a cause. Opposite to. Oppressed by. Originate with a person, in a thing. Originated in. Outrageous in. Overcharged with. Overjoyed with, at. Overpowered with. Overspread with. Overwhelmed with. Palatable to. Palpitate with. Pant for. Parallel to. Paralyzed by. Paramount to. Parley with. Parody on, upon. Part with. Partake *of.* Partiality to, for. Participate in, with, of. Particular on a point, in a thing. Pass between. Passed over. Passion for. Patient in action, under difficulties. Pause on, at. Paved with. Peck at. Peculiar to. Peep at. Pendent(hanging) from. Penetrate into.

Penitent for. Penurious in his habits. Perceptible to, by. Perfect in. Perish by, with. Pernicious to. Perplexed at. Persevere in. Persist in. Pert to. Pertain to. Pestered with. Petrified with. Pierce through, with. Pine at, for. Piqued at. Pitch upon, against. Plagued with. Planted with (firs) by a person. Play at a game, on an instrument, with a person. Pleasant to the taste. Pleased with, at. Plunder of. Plunge into. Polite in manners, towards others. Ponder over. Poor in. Popular, (a favourite) with men, for a thing. Possessed of. Power over. Praised for, by. Pray for anything, to the Deity. Preceded by. Precedence in position over another. Precious to. in, Precipitate (adj.) (verb) into. Precise in. Preclude from. Predilection for. Predominance over. Pre-eminent for a thing above others. Prefaced with. Prefer to, over, above. Prescrable to. Preference to, over. Prefix to.

Pregnant with.

Prejudice against.

can also say, "H

PREPOSITIONS.

Punctilious in. spoke to the prejudice of that man. Pursuance of. Pursuant to. Prejudicial to. Push beyond. Preliminary to. Prepare against, for. Put np with. Prepossessed in his fa-Prescribe to a man for sight. his good. Preserve from. Quarrel reside over. res upon. retend to. Prelext for. Presume on. work Prevail (to persuade) with, on, upon, (to overcome) over, against. Prevent from. Previous W. Prey upon, on. Pride in. Privy to. Proceed with Prodigal of. Productive of. Proficient in. Profit by. Profitable to. Profound in. Profuse of. Progress in Projecting from. Prompt (adj.) in deciding. Prompted by. Prone to. Pronounce ogainst a person, on a thing. Proof cf. Proper for. Propinious to. Proportionable to. Protect others from, ourselves against. Protest against. Proud of. Provide for persons, against casualties. Provided with means, for the occasion. Pravident of. Provoked at a thing, by n lettenn. Proximity to Prudent in. Pry into. Pulled up with.

with. Punish for, by, with. Relative to. Puzzle with. at. Quaked with fear, at the Qualified for. (verb) with, (noun) between. Quarter on. Questioned on, upon. Quick in perception, at Quote from. Rack with. Raze at. Rail at, against, a persou, on a subject. Rap at a door, on the shoulder. Rate at. Rave al. Ready for. Recede from. Receptacle for. Reckless of. Reckin on, upon. Reclaim from. Recline on, against. Recoil (re-act) upon, (shrink) from. Reconcile (to make to like again) to, (to make anything consistent) with. Recover from. Recur to. Redeem from. Redolent of. Reduce (subdue) under, (in other cases) to, by; as, "Reduced to porenty, by extraragance." Reference to. Referring to. Reflect upon, on. Refrain from. Refresh with, by. Refuse to. Regard for. Regardful of. Regardless of. Rejoice at.

Relapse into.

Relation between, to Release from. Relevant to. Reliance on. Relieve from distress, by a person. Relish for. Reluctant to. Rely upon, on. Remain in, at, (to be lest) over. Remarkable for. Remedy for. Remind of. Remiss in. Remit to. Remonstrate with. Remorse for. Remote from. Remove from one place to another, by an agent, in a vehicle. Repent of. Repine at. Replenished with. Replete with. Reply to. Repose in a person, on a sofa. Reprehensible for. Reproached for, with. Repugnance to. Repulse from. Reputable for. Request to make of a man for anything. Require of. Requisite for. Rescue from. be-Resemblance to, fuccen. Reside in. Resign to. Resolute in. Resolve on, upor Resort to. Resound with. Respect for. Respectful towards. Respite from. Resplendent with. Reponded to. Responsible for a thing. _ to a person. Rest in, ct, (to depend)

съ, проп.

Restore to. Restrain from, by. Restricted to, within. Result from. Retained in his station, with difficulty. Retentive of. Retire from, into, beyond. Retreat from. Retrench from. Revel in. Revert to. Revolt from. Revolve in my mind, the earth revolves on its axis. Rich in. Rid of. Rise above. Rival 🖦 Rive: in. Rob of. Rooted in Rouse from. Rude in. Ruffled (agitated) at. Rule over. Ruminate on. Run against a post, for a prize, over a person, into a house, to a place, along a road. Rush against, upon, into. L. 70. b .- Sacred to. Sale in, from. Sail for, over, to. Sanguine in, of. Satiate with. Satisfactory to. Satisfied with. Saturate with. Saved by a person, from danger. Scarce of. Scoff at. Scope for. Scowled at. Scramble for. Screen from. Search for. Secede from. Seclude from. Second to none in zeal. Secrete a thing from a person. Secure from. Seduce from.

Sedulous in. Seized upon, with, by. Selected from. Send to, for. Sensible of. Sensitive to. Separate from. Sequel to. Serious in. Serviceable to. Settled in. Sever from. Severe in his remarks, against a person. Shake with. Share (verb) with, (noun) of. Shelter from. Shield (verb) from, (noun) to. Shine upon. Shiver with. Shoot at. Short of. Shrewd in. Shrink from. Shrouded in. Shudder *at*. Sick of. Sickened at. Side with. Sigh for. Significant of. Similar to. Sin against. Sincere in. Sink into, beneath, under. Sit on, upon. Situated on a hill, in a valley. Skilful (when a noun follows) in, (when an active participle follows) at or in; as, "Skilful in contrivance;" "Skilful at contriving." Slave to. Slothful in. Slow in, of speech, at work Slur over. Smile upon, on, at. Smitten with, by. Smother with. Snap at. Snarl at.

Snatch at, from.

Sneer at. Soar above. Soiled with. Solicitous of. Soothe with. Sorrowful for. Sorry for. Sound in. Sparing of. Sparkle with. Specific for, against. Speckle with. Speculate upon. Spite (noun) against. Spleen against. Spoil (to pillage) of. Sport with. Spotted with. Spread with. Sprinkled with. Spurn at. Stained with. Stamped upon, with. Stare at. Start for a place, from al another, thing sudden. Startled by. Steadfast in. Steady in conduct, to business. Stick to. Stiffened with. Stifled with. Stir up. Stocked with. Stored with. Storm at. Strain out. Streaked with. Strengthened with. Stretch towards an obbeyond one's ject, strength. Strewed with. Strip (robbed) of, (lay bare) off. Strive against, for. Strong in. Struck with, by, on. Struggle against, with, for, in. Studded with. Studious at his books, of antiquity. Studious to please. Staffed with. Stumble at.

Stunned with, by. Subjection to. . . Subjoin to. Submerge under. Submit to. Subordinate to. Subscribe to. Subsequent to. Subservient to. Subsist upon. Substitute for. Subtract from. Subversive of. Succeed to, by, in. Succoured with. Succumb to. Suffer for. Sufficient for. Suffocated with. Saffased with. Suggest to. Suit to, willi. Suitable to, for. Superscription over. Supplement to. Supplicate for. Supplied with, by. Supported by. Supremacy over. Sure of. Surety for. Surfeited with. Surprised at, by. Surrender ta Surrounded by, with, on, Susceptible of. Suspended to. Suspicious of. Swarm with, Sway over. Swear at. Swerre from. Sympathize with. Sympathy for. Synonymous to, with. Tact in. Tainted with Take upon, from. Taken up with. Talk of, about, Tally with Tamper with, Tap at the door, on the shoulder. Tamished by. Taste of for. Taste of Trench upon. a thing, means actual | Trespass on. enjoyment; Taste for | Trille with.

a thing, means only a capacity for enjoyment. Taudry in dress. Tax with, for ; as, "This salutation cannot be taxed with flattery;" "Neither could be tax Milton for his choice of a supernatural argument." Ten from. Tease with. Teem with. Temperate in. Tempt with. Tenacious of. Tend to. Terrible to. Thankful to him, for favours. Think of, on. Thirst for, after. Threaten with. Thrifty of time. Throw at, on. Thunder at. Tickled with. Tidy in. Tinged with. Tipped with. Tirade against. Tired with, of. Titter with, at, Tolerant to. Topped with. Tormented with, by. Torn by. Tortured with. Touch (arrive) at, (to feel) with. Trade with. Trained to, by. Trammeled with. Trample upon. Transfer to. Transmit to. Transported with joy, to a foreign place. Travel from one place to another. Tread upon. Treat on a subject, a person with lenity. Treatise on.

Triumph over. Troubled with. Troublesome to. True to his word. Trust in. Tug at. Twist with. Twitted by a person, for a fault. Tyrannize over. Umbrage at. Unaccustomed to. Unacquainted with. Unalterable in. Unaware of. Unbearable in conduct, to a person. Unbecoming to. Uncalled for. Uncouth in. Understanding between. Uneasy about. Unequal to. Unfit for. Unheard of. Unheeded by. Unison with, to. Unite (in an active sense) with, (in a passive sense) to: as, "The Roman iurisprudence having closely united itself with the system of monarchy;" "Be you not united to their assembly." Unmindful of. Unruly to. Unstable in. Upbraided with, Urge upon. Useful to a person, for anything. Vain of. Valiant in. Valuable for. Value upon, on, at. Vanish from Variance with. Varnish with. Veil with. Venerable for. Vested in a person, for a purpose. Vexed at, for. Victim to. Victorious over.

Vie with.
Violation of.
Virulent against.
Void of.
Vote for.
Wait upon, on a person, at a house, for a parcel.
Want of.
Ward off danger.
Warn a person of, against.
Wary of.

Wenry of a task, in well-doing.
Wedded to.
Weep at, for.
Well off, ill off (see 417).
Wink at.
Wish for.
Withdraw from.
Withhold from.
Witness of.
Wonder at.

Worry with.
Worthy of.
Wound with.
Wrangle with.
Wrench from.
Wrest from.
Wrestle with.
Wring from,
Yield to.
Zeal for.
Zealous of.
Zest for.

b. In the foregoing List, those prepositions which are of the most frequent use, are placed the first after the word, and those which are less frequent, the second, and so on. In all difficult cases, examples are given by way of illustration.

Work at, for.

c. Several of these words take other prepositions after them to express different significations; thus, Fall in signifies to concur; fall out, to happen; fall upon, to attack. In examples of this kind, the sense alone must determine which preposition must be employed.

d. By, generally refers to the primary agent or person,—with, to the secondary agent, instrument, or accompanying cause; thus, "Goliath was killed by David with a stone." Hero David was the cause, and stone the instrument. "He walks with a staff by moonlight."

c. Prepositions must never be annexed to those words which do not properly admit them; thus, "These laws distress upon the people," should be, "These laws distress the people."

N.B. In hearing the foregoing List, the teacher should mention each word, and require the pupil to give the proper proposition.

T. 70. c. 430. a. To is used after a verb of motion, before the names of places; as, "He went to Bristol."

Into also follows verhs of motion; as, "I go into the house."

b. In is used after a verb of rest before the names of countries, cities, streets; as, "He lives in France;" "in London;" in Rockingham Street;" "I am in my room."

c. At is used after the verbs to touch, arrive, land, from foreign countries; as, "We touched, arrived, landed, at Portsmouth."

But we say on shore; and when the places are in the same country we say in; as, "We left York and arrived in London."

At is also used before the names of villages, single houses, towns, and foreign cities; as, "He resides at Headingley;" "at Harewood House;" "at No. 8, Rockingham Street;" "at Leeds;" "at Paris."

- d. Between is applied to two things; as, "Between the two:"
 —among and amidst, to more than two; as, "Among the three."
- 431. Prepositions must not be used as adverbs; thus, "They went before us," is sometimes improperly used for, "They went before we went."

[&]quot;They went before us," implies, in front of us; "They went before we went," implies priority of time.

RULE 19. CONJUNCTIONS.

LESSONS 71, 72.—Exercises 71, 72.—Page SS.

- x. 71.—432. a. Co-ordinative Conjunctions connect in the same mood and tense, two or more rerbs having the same relation to the sentence with respect to time and circumstance; as, "He spoke and wrote accurately."
- b. Co-ordinative Conjunctions also connect in the same case, two or more nouns and pronouns which are similarly circumstanced; as, "He and I were present." "Between you and me." "He wrote to him and me."
- c. Clauses not having the same relation to the sentence must not be connected by co-ordinative conjunctions; thus, "I say no more, and believe me yours," is incorrect; for, say is the Indic. Present, and believe in the Imper. Mood. We must, therefore, cancel and, and make the clauses separate sentences.
- d. Desides nouns, pronouns, and verbs, conjunctions connect adverbs and adjectives; as, "We are fearfully and wonderfully formed;" "He is wise and virtuous." As frequently unites words that are in apposition; as, "He offered himself as umpire."
- 433. a. Care must be taken not only to use appropriate conjunctions, but to preserve the construction which the relation between the clauses requires; thus, "It is impossible for those who were once enlightened, if they fall away, to renew them again unto repentance," is incorrect; it should be, "It is impossible that they should be received again to repentance who, when once enlightened, have fallen away."
- b. Addition, under its various modifications, is expressed by and, belt, also. The word and denotes simply addition; as, "Thomas and John." To prepare the mind, as it were, for the introduction of a second subject, it is assail to prefix the word both to the first subject; thus, "Both Thomas-and-John."—Beth, in this and similar instances, may be regarded as a Conjunction. (See 521. c.)
- c. Separation, negation, and exposition, diversity, condition, and doubt, are denoted by either, or; neither, nor; whether, but; allowith, though, yet, nevertheless, netwithstanding; lest. The simple distinction may be expressed by one word, or; as, "Thomas or John;" that is, one of them, but not both. The introduction of the word either before the first subject prepares the mind for an exception or separation; as, "Either Thomas or John." In a similar manner the word neither prepares the mind for a negation; as, "Neither Thomas nor John."
- d. The cause is denoted by -Because, g. Condition by Except, if, unless, for, since.
- e. Purpose is denoted by-In order h. Inference by Then, Correfere, that.
 - f. Comparison is expressed by-Than. i. Equality by-As, as well as, so.
- 434. a. Two words of the same part of speech, when either addition or separation is intended, generally require a conjunction between them; as, "Time and Tide;" "John or Joseph;" "To be good and virtuous."
- b. Three or more words of the same part of speech require a conjunction before the last; as, "Honour, hope, and goodness."

- In a disjunctive sentence, the words either, neither, are generally placed before the first word, and or, nor, before the last; "Neither truth, honour, nor discretion was exhibited."
- c. When emphasis is intended, the conjunction is repeated before each; as, "Truth, and honour, and ability, have been sacrificed."
- 435. a. Two conjunctions should not be employed in the same clause when one is sufficient; thus, "He is so careful (as) that you may depend upon him." Cancel as.—Similarly, "But (and) if that evil servant say," should be, "But if that evil servant," &c.—Also, in connecting several clauses, the recurrence of the same conjunction should be avoided as much as possible.
- b. Two conjunctions, however, are allowable, when one of them serves to connect the sentence with what precedes, and the other to connect one clause in the centence with another clause; as, "I go to prepare a place for you. And if I go and prepare a place for you, I will come again." Here, and connects the sentences; if, the clauses.
- c. Also, in constructing clauses, two conjunctive modes should be avoided, when the latter might be expressed by a conditional form; thus, "If he had been more studious, he had been more successful," should be, "he would have been more successful." (See 676.)
- 436. a. When the verbs are in different moods and tenses, the Nominativo (as stated in 401) is generally repeated, when the verbs are connected by a copulative conjunction; as, "I know it, and I can prove it."—But the nominative is always repeated, when the verbs are separated by a disjunctive conjunction, or when the sentence is interrogative or emphatical; as, "He continues his studies, though he has met with many difficulties;" "Do you say so, and can you prove it?" "He has formed us, and He will preserve us." (See 401.)
- b. Also, in a transition from the afirmative to the negative form, or from the negative to the afirmative, the nominative is generally repeated; as, "He is happy, though he is not rich;" "He is not happy, though he is rich."
- 437. a. After verbs of doubting, fearing, and denying, the word that is preferable to lest or but that; as, "You do not doubt that he is honest;" that is, "You do not doubt that thing, namely, he is honest, or, his honesty."
- b. "They feared that they would not return," is much better than, "They feared lest they would not return." To say, "I doubt not but that he will fulfil his promise," implies, that I doubt nothing except one thing, namely, that he will fulfil his promise; yet this is the very thing not doubted. Remove the but, and the sense is correctly conveyed.—But after a Negative clause is equivalent to that not; as, "It cannot be but Nature will have some director;" that is, "It cannot be—that Nature will not have some director." (See 423. e.) "There is no question but the king will reform abuses."—But is sometimes used for only; as, "Born but to die;" born only to die. "And now abide faith, hope, charity, these three; but (yet, only) the greatest of these is charity."
- 438. a. Conjunctions must neither be improperly omitted, nor indiscriminately used the one for the other.
- b. In Saxon or familiar dialect, that is frequently omitted; as, "I told him I should come." But, in the Latinized or more formal expression, that is rarely omitted; as, "I informed him that I intended to come."—If must not be used for whether; thus, "See if it rains," should be, "See whether it rains or not."—As, connected with the adjective such, is used as an adjective; as, "Let such as give advice be upright." (See 231.)—As and because must not be unnecessarily introduced; thus. "The books were to have been sold as on this day;" cancel

as.—And must not be employed for or after the word without; thus, "The house was built without brick and stone," should be, "without brick or stone." To say, "built without brick and stone," implies, that though both these materials might not have been used, yet one of them might; but to say, "without brick or stone," excludes both.

- c. The word or is used sometimes to point out a difference between things, at other times only between names for the same thing. When the first noun is priceded by either, a difference between the hings is indicated. When either is not inserted, the same difference may be pointed out by a repetition of the article, or of the article and preposition before each noun; but when several terms refer to the same hing, the article and preposition are not repeated, only the conjunction or being inserted before the last. Thus, "That figure is a sphere, or a globe, or a ball," is incorrect; it thould be, "is a sphere, globe, or hall," because they are not different things, but different terms for the same thing. The expression, "He put the money in a bag, or in a bag, or "in a bag or a bag," implies two distinct hings, a bag and a bar.—The sentence, "The king, whose character was not sufficiently vigorous nor decisive, exented to the measure," is not quite correct. If the worl decirice is used as merely explanatory of the word riprovat, or as synonymous with it, then we ought to say, "vigorous or decisive;" but if the two terms are intended to designate two distinct things, we should use nor and its corresponding conjunction neither, thus, "The king, whose character was neither sufficiently vigorous nor decisive."
- d. Except (the prep.) is used before a noun or pronoun; unless (the conj.) before a rerb; as, "None were present except John." "He will be rejected unless be diligent."
- e. Ercept is preferable to the phrases other than and all but; thus, instead of saying, "He allowed no other application than by letter;" it would be better to say, "He allowed no application except by letter;" "They were diligent all but Thomas," should be, "except Thomas."
- f. The word without must not be employed for unless; thus, "Without he study, he cannot encoced;" should be, "Unless be study," &c.
- z. 72.—439. Some 1. Adjectives, 2. Adverbs, and 3. Conjunctions, require to be followed by words corresponding with them in sense.

1. Adjectives:—

Other, having an adjective prefixed, requires than; as,

"Were it any other than he, I would consent."

All comparatives require than; no,

. "He is greater than I."

Former-latter, This-that; as, .

"Virtue and vice are opposite to each other; the former emobles the mind, the latter debases it;" or, "This debases the mind, that emobles it."

Same-as, expressing similarity; as,

"Your paper is of the same kind as mine."

The one—the other; as, Little, and the words no, nothing, and

"The ene is good, the other bod."

other negatives, require except; 63,

"He has little of the scholar except the

Such-as, expressing similarity; to,

"There Ivers are such as yours."

Such—as, preceding an infinitive, when consequence is implied; as,

"The pain was such as to produce death"

Such-that, preceding the other moods, when consequence is denoted; as,

"His diligence was each, that his friends were confident of his space-a."

2. ADVERBS:-

As requires as, expressing equality; as,
As—so, expressing likeness; thus,
As—so, applied to cerbs, and expressing
a comparison; thus,

As, signifying when, while, or because, is generally used without so; thus, .

So requires as, expressing comparison; as,

So after a negative requires as; as,
So—as, preceding an infinitive, and expressing a consequence; as,

So-that, preceding the other moods, and expressing a consequence; as, .

So-so, expressing similarity; as,

Rather-than; as. .

Not only, not merely-but also; as,

At one time—at another time, are sometimes elegantly expressed by now now; as,

Where-there; as, . . .

When-then; as,
Never-nor; as,

Scarcely-when: as.

3. Conjunctions:-

Both requires and; as, (231. c.)

Though or although—yet, nevertheless;
as,

Whether-or; as,

Either-or; as, 3
Neither-nor; as,

II, in reasoning, is followed

Because-therefore: Bs. .

"He is as good as she."

"As the stars, so shall thy seed be."

"As he excels in virtue, so he rises in estimation."

"As I came home, I met a friend."

"I viewed in my mind, so far as I was able, the beginning and progress of a rising world." "So soon as ho began to speak, he inquired."

"He is not so rich as he appears."

"He studied logic so attentively, as to be able to reason correctly."

"He studied logic so attentively, that he was able to reason correctly,"

"So we preached, and so ye believed."

"He would consent, rather than suffer."

"He was not only prudent, but he was also industrious."

"Like leaves on trees, the race of man is found, Now green in youth, now withering on the ground."

"Here plenty, there want."

"In one place misery, in another happiness."
"Where idleness is, there is want."

Where tuteness is, there is water.

"When he strives, then he will succeed."

Exercalumniate, nor encourage these tiple do."
Scarcely had he commenced, when he

"Scarcely: had he commenced, when he was intorrupted."

" Both he and she were present."

"Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull."

"Whether in health or in sickness."

" Either you or I must go."

" Neither you nor I am able to do it."

"If this point is established, then it naturally follows," &c.

"Because he has proved the victor, he ought therefore to be rewarded."

440. a. Conjunctions that do not correspond should not be connected with the same noun or pronoun, as the meaning of the sentence is thus rendered imperfect. "Will it be believed that the four Gospels are as old, or even older, than tradition?" should be, "older than tradition, or even as old?"

b. "The relations are so uncertain, as that they require a great deal of examination;" should be, "that they require a great deal of examination," because a consynce is denoted."—"There was no man so tanguine the did not apprehend some ill consequences;" ought to be, "as not to apprehend;"—we may also say, "There was no man, how tanguine seever, or however tanguine, who did not apprehend."—"We should tailficiently weigh the objects of our bope, whether they are such as we may reasonably expect from them what they propose," should be, "such that we may reasonably expect."

c. The following are Violations of Single Conjunctions.—"The dake had not behaved with that loyalty as he ought to have done," should be, "with which he ought to have behaved." "In the order as they lie in his preface, should be, "in the order in which they lie," &c. "His donation was the more acceptable, that it was given without solicitation," should be. "because or as it was given without solicitation." "He had too much grace and wit than to be a member of that club;" than is superfluous; it should be, "He had too much grace and wit to be a member of that club."

441. Neither—nor, and either—or, should be placed near the words to which they refer; as, "Neither he nor his friend was present;" "It neither improves the understanding nor delights the imagination."

442. Then and as do not govern any case, but have the same case after them as they have before them; thus, "You are wiser than I (am);" "He is as good as she (is);" "I like John better them (I like) him;" "I respect John more than he (respects John);" "The nations not so blessed as thou (art);" "One greater than he has spoken."—By supplying the verb, all ambiguity will be avoided.

Than whom is an error, an imitation of Milton and of the Letin idiom. (See 252. f.)

INTERJECTIONS.

For the government of Interjections, see 229, & Rule 9, 373.

EULE 20. ELLIPSIS.

LESSON 73. a.—Exercise 73. a.—Page 90.

443. a. As a general rule, convey your ideas in as few words as possible, provided your meaning is rendered full and distinct. The omission of unnecessary words is usually called Ellipsis. Thus, instead of saying. "Reading makes a knowing man, study makes a judicious man, and conversation makes a polished man;" we may avoid repeating the word makes, and say. "Reading makes a knowing man; study, a judicious man; and conversation, a polished man."

- b. An ellipsis is not allowable, when the employment of it would occasion obscurity, weaken the force of the sentence, or render it ungrammatical; thus, "We are apt to love who love us," should be, "We are apt to love them who love us."
- 444. ILLUSTRATION.—In almost all sentences, and particularly in compound sentences, an ellipsis of some of the parts of speech frequently occurs, as may be seen from the following examples:—
- a. Of the Article. "The sun and moon;" here, the repetition of the article is unnecessary. Bot the following sentence, being intended to be emphatical, requires the article to be repeated; as, "Not only the year, bot the day and the hour." The article is also generally repeated when one word begins with a consonant, and the other with a vowel; as, "A garden and an orchard."
- b. Of the Noun. "One sun by day, by night ten thousand shine;" here, the repetition of the word sun is unnecessary. In emphatical sentences, the noun, as well as the other parts of speech, must be repeated. Nouns, connected with adjectives of dimension or measure, have generally some words understood; as, "A wall seven feet high;" that is, "A wall which is seven feet high."
- c. Of the Adjective. "A little man and woman;" that is, "A little man and a little woman." In expressions of this kind, the adjective must have exactly the same signification, and be quite as proper when joined to the latter substantive as to the former; otherwise, the ellipsis should not be used.—The same adjective thould not be applied to two norms of different numbers; thus, "A magnificent nouse and gardens," would be better, if written, "A magnificent house and fine gardens," (See 357. b.)
- d. Of the Pronoun. "In the posture I lay;" here, the pronoun is improperly omitted; it should be, "In the posture in which I lay." "We speak that we do know," ought to be, "We speak that which we do know;" or, "what wo know."
- e. Of the Verb. "She was young, beantiful, and good;" that is, "She was young, was beautiful, and was good." If we wish to point out one property above the rest, that property must be placed the last, and the ellipsis supplied; as, "She is young and beautiful, and she is good."

Do, did, hare, had, shall, will, may, might, and the rest of the auxiliaries of the compound tenses, are frequently used alone, to avoid the repetition of the principal verb; as, "I have studied my lesson, but you hare not;" that is, "but you have not studied it."

When several different verbs are in the same mood and tense, we sometimes avoid repeating the auxiliary that has been prefixed to the first verb; as, "I have seen and heard him frequently;" that is, "I have seen and I have heard him frequently." But when anything is to be emphatically expressed, or when opposition is denoted, the auxiliary verb must be repeated; as, "I have seen and I have heard him too."

- f. Of the Adverb. "He spoke and acted prudently;" that is, "He spoke prudently, and he acted prudently."
 - g. Of the Preposition. "He was banished (from) the kingdom."
 - h. Of the Confunction.

"Tis not enough (that) taste, indgment, learning, join; In all you speak, let truth and candour shine."

- i. Of the Interjection. The ellipsis of the interjection takes place, when the nouns refer to the same person or thing; as, "Oh! my brother, my friend!" But, when the nouns refer to different persons or things, the interjection must be repeated; as, "Oh liberty! Oh my country!"
- j. Sometimes a whole phrase is omitted; as, "Solomon introduces different speakers into his book of Ecclesiastes, without distinctly naming them; as, the fool, the philosopher, the epicure, and the preacher, which (introduction of different speakers) accounts for the apparent dissonance of sentiments in that book."

The following phrases are also elliptical ;--

"Wo is me!" that is, "Wo is to me!" "To let blood;" that is, "to let out blood."

L. 73. b.—RULE 21. SYNTACTICAL SYMMARY.—Ex. 73. b.—P. 92.

445. a. In the Syntactical Formation of sentences, regard must be had to the strict observance of the rules of concord, government, arrangement, and connection of the words and clauses,—to the uniform and dependent construction of each sentence throughout,-and to the adaptation of the words to the ideas intended; thus, "His accusations were strength against him;" should be, "strong against him."—" If I can contribute to your and my country's glory." This sentence is ambiguous, and admits of two modes of correction ;--1st. "If I can contribute to our country's glory;" or 2ndly. "If I can contribute to your glory and to that of my country."

For directions on the choice of appropriate words, the student is referred to Perspiculty.

VIOLATIONS OF THE RULE.—1. "The Court of Chancery frequently mitigates and breaks the teeth of the common law;" to miligate the teeth of the common law is evidently improper; the sentence should be, "The Court of Chancery frequently mitigates the common law, and breaks the teeth of it."

- 2. "They presently grow into good humour, and good language towards the crown;" we may grow into good humour, but we cannot be said to grow into good language. The scattence should be, "They presently grow into good humour, and begin to use good language towards the crown."
- 3. " How much socrer the reformation of this degenerate age is almost utterly to be despaired of, we may yet have a more comfortable prospect of future times."
 The sentence should be thus constructed, "Though the reformation of this degenerate age is nearly to be despaired of," &c.
- 4. "Oh! shut not up my soul with sinners, nor my life with the bloodthirsty; in whose hand is wickedness, and their right hand is full of gifts." As the passage introduced by the conjunction and, was not intended as a continuation of the principal and independent part of the sentence, but of the dependent part, the relative whose should have been used instead of the pronoun their; namely, "and whose right hand is full of gifts."
- 5. "We have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision." It is proper to ear, "altering and compounding those images which we have once received, into all the varieties of picture and vision;" but we cannot ear, "retaining them into all the varieties." The rentence should be, "We have the power of retaining those images which we have once received, and of altering and compounding them into all the varieties of picture and vision;" or thus, "We have the power of retaining, altering, and compounding those images which we have once received, and of forming them into all the varieties of picture and vision."
- 6. "Eye hath not seen, nor car heard, neither have entered into the heart of man, the things which God hath prepared for them that love Him." In this sentence, the same noun is considered both in the nominative and the objective cases. It would be better constructed thus—"Eye hath not seen, nor hath ear heard, neither hath it entered into the heart of man, to conceive the things," &c.
 - A few additional instances are subjoined:—

446. Syntactical Parsing Table.

- 1. Article State what kind. Why inserted or repeated?
- Noun State the kind,—Gender, Number, Person, Case. Givo reasons for each. Name Poss, Sing. and Plur.
- Adjective . . . State with what nonn it agrees; the degree of compar. Compare it.
- 4. a. Personal Pron. . State the Gend. Numb. Pers. and Case. Give reasons for each.
 - b. Rel. Pron. . . Name its Antecedent. State the Gend. Numb. Pcrs. Casc. Give reasons for each.
- b. a. Verb State the kind, Reg. or Irreg., Mocd, Tense, Numb. and Pers. Give reasons for each. Name Past Tense, Pres. and Past Part.
 - b. Participle . . . State the kind. Name the Pres. and Perfect.
- 6. Adverb. . . . State the kind. What word does it modify? Its Position.
- 7. Preposition . . . Name the word which it governs. Explain its meaning.
- Conjunction . . . State the kind. Show what moods, tenses, and cases it connects.
- 9. Interjection . . . Explain its meaning.

For Models and Examples, see Exercises, p. 169, &c.

PART IV.—PUNCTUATION

LESSONS 74, 75. a. & b.—Exs. 74, 75. a. & b.—Page 93.

- 2.72.—447. a. Punctuation explains the mode of marking a written composition into sentences, clauses, and members, by means of points or stops, for the purpose of noting the different pauses which the sense, and an accurate pronunciation require.
- b. The principal stops are the Comma (,), Semicolon (;), Colon (:), the Period or full stop (.), Note of Interrogation (?), Note of Exclamation (!), and the Dash (...).
- c. The period properly denotes a complete round of sentences; the colon is a limb of a period; the semicolon, a half limb; the comma, a small part or clause cut off.
- d. The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause longer than the comma; the colon, longer than the semicolon; and the period, longer than the colon.
- c. The duration of the pauces must be left to the taste of the reader or speaker, much depending on the style of the writing and the manner in which it ought to be pronounced; the grave or solemn style requiring much lenger pauces than the lively or passionate, in which a rapid enunciation is required.—Pauces are sometimes necessary in reading and speaking, where usage does not warrant the insertion of any point.

RULES FOR THE PROPER PUNCTUATION OF A COMPOSITION.

The Comma.

- 448. The COMMA separates those parts of a sentence, which, though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.
- 449. a. RULE 1.—SIMPLE SENTENCES.—A simple scattered, when short, admits only a period at the end; as, "No state of life is exempt from trouble."
- b. But when a simple sentence is long, and the subject and predicate consist each of a number of words, a comma must be inserted before the rerb; as, "A steady and undivided attention to one object, is a sure mark of a superior mind."—Modern Functuation, however, frequently dispenses with this latter rule.
- 450. a. Rule 2.—Simple Members.—The simple members of a Compound sentence, whether successive or involved, are separated by commas; as, "When the graces of novelty are worn off, admiration is succeeded by indifference." "The soldiers, when they heard the report, charged the enemy with vigour."

- b. But when the members are closely connected by a conjunctive particle, the comma is unnecessary; as, "Revelation tells us how we may attain happiness."
- 451. a. Rule 3.—Two TERMS.—Two words of the same part of speech, when connected by a conjunction expressed, do not admit a comma between them; as, "The earth and the moon are planets." "The man of order catches and arrests the hours as they fly."
- b. But when the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted between the words; as, "Reason, passion, answer one great end." "He is a plain, honest man."
- c. Also, when the two words connected are emphatically distinguished, the comma is inserted; as, "Honest, but indolent, his course was frequently disturbed."
- d. An exception to Rule b occurs, when two or more adjectives do not express distinct qualities of the noun, but one adjective merely modifies the other; as, "A dark brown coat." "A light yellow-green tint."
- e. A comma may also be inserted when the conjunction is expressed, if the parts connected are not short; as, "Intemperance destroys the strength of our bodies, and the vigour of our minds."
- 452. a. Rule 4.—Three or more words of the same part of speech, with or without a conjunction, require a comma after each of them, except the last, and the last word, if a noun (but not if an adjective), must also be separated from the verb by a comma; as, "Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts." "David was a brave, wise, and prudent prince."

In the former example, painting admits a comma after it; but prudent, being an adjective, does not.—The following is an additional example to illustrate the Rule: "To relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the innocent, to reward the deserving, are humane and noble employments."

- b. When words follow each other IN PAIRS, there is a comma between each pair; as, "Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin, are the consequences of civil war."
- T. 75. a. 453. Rule 5.—Nominative Absolute, &c.—The words used in a direct address, the Nominative absolute, a short expression (in the manner, either of a quotation or of a command), and the infinitive mood absolute, when it is not used as a nominative case, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "My son, hear the counsels of thy father."

[&]quot;I remain, Sir, your obedient servant." "The time of youth being precious, we should devote it to improvement." "Plutarch calls lying, the rice of slares." "I say muto all, Watch." "To enjoy pleasure, he sacrificed future case and reputation."

- 454. a. Rule 6.—Adjuncts.—Adjuncts or explanatory phrases, either at the beginning, middle, or end of a simple sentence, are separated from it by commas; as, "With gratitude, I remember his goodness to me."
- "I remember, with gratitude, his goodness to me." "His talents, formed for great enterprises, could not fall of rendering him conspicuous."
- b. Adjectives and Participles, having certain words dependent upon them, are, with their adjuncts, generally separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "Time hovers o'er, impatient to destroy, and shuts up all the passages of joy." "Principles of morality, imprinted on the memory at an early age, are seldom crased from the mind."
- c. When the adjectives and participles immediately follow the noun, and are employed in a restrictive sense, they must not be separated by a comma; as, "A man renounced for repartee, will rarely spare his friend."
- d. The words nay, so, hence, again, first, econdly, formerly, now, larly, in fact, therefore, wherefore, however, besides, indeed, and all other words and phrases of the same kind, must, when considered of importance, and, particularly, at the commencement of a sentence, be separated from the context by a comma; as, "Reides, our reputation does not depend on the caprice of man, but on our own good actions." "If the spring put forth no blossoms, in summer, there will be no beauty, and in autumn, no fruit; so, if youth he trified away without improvement, riper years may be contemptible, and old age miscrable."
- e. When, however, these phrases are not considered important, and, particularly, in short sentences, the comma is not inserted; as, "There is surely a pleasure in acting kindly." "Idleness is containly the mother of all vices."
- f. A word or phrase, emphatically repeated, is separated by commas; ns, "Turn ye, turn ye, why will ye die?"
- 455. a. Rule 7.—Nours in Apposition.—When the latter of two nouns, placed in apposition, is accompanied by an adjunct, both the noun and the adjunct must be separated from the former by a comma; as, "Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal and knowledge."
- b. But when several words are used as one compound name, then a comma is not inserted between them; as, "Paul the apostle;" "The emperor Antoninus."
- 456. a. Rule 8.—Phrases in Opposition.—Simple members of sentences, connected by comparatives, and phrases placed in opposition to, or in contrast with, each other, are separated by commas; thus, "As the hart panieth after the water-brooks, so doth my soul after Thee."
- "They are sometimes in union will, and sometimes in opposition to, the views of each other."
 - "Theogh deep, 3rd clear; theogh pentle, 3rd not dull; Etrong, without rage; eriheut o'erflowing, fall."
- b. When only one word follows the last preposition, a comma must not be inserted before it; as, "He was much attached to, and concerned for John."
- c. When the members of comparative sentences are short, the comma is omitted; as, "How much better is wisdom then gold."

- L. 75. b.—457. a. RULE 9.—THE RELATIVE.—A comma must be inserted before the relative, when the clause immediately after it is used as explanatory of the antecedent clause; as, "He, who disregards the good opinion of the world, must be utterly abandoned."
- b. But when the relative is so closely connected with its antecedent, that it cannot be transposed, a comma must not be inserted before it; as, "Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make."
- c. When several words come between the relative and its antecedent, a comma is sometimes inserted; as, "There is no charm in the female sex, which can supply the place of virtue."
- 458. a. Rule 10.—Inverted Order.—A comma must be inserted between the two parts of a sentence, which have their syntactical order inverted; as, "With God, nothing is impossible;" that is, "Nothing is impossible with God."
- b. When the subject of inquiry introduces an interrogative sentence, it is immediately followed by a comma; as, "Our fathers, where are they?"
- 459. RULE 11.—THE INFINITIVE MOOD.—When any tense of the verb to be is followed by a verb in the infinitive mood, which, by transposition, might be made the nominative case to it, the tense of the verb to be is separated from this infinitive by a comma; as, "The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from all associations with bad men;" that is, "To withdraw from all associations with bad men, is the most obvious remedy."

So, also, in this instance,—"It ill becomes good and wise men, to oppose and degrade one another."

- 460. Rule 12.—Verb understood.—When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."
- 461. a. Rule 13.—Conjunction That.—The word that, used as a conjunction, is preceded by a comma; as, "Be virtuous, that you may be happy."
- b. The preceding Rules will, it is hoped, be found comprehensive; yet, there may, perhaps, be cases in which the student must rely on his own judgment.
- c. In preparing works for the press, some authors merely insert a period at the end of each sentence, and leave the rest to be pointed by the printers, who, from their constant practice, are supposed to have acquired a uniform mode of punctuation. This custom is not, however, to be recommended.

The Scmicolon.

LESSON 76. a.—Exercise 76. a.—Page 96.

462. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

- 463. a. Rule 1.—When the first division of a sentence contains a complete proposition, but is followed by a clause which is added as an inference, or to give some explanation, the two parts must be separated by a semicolon; as, "Perform your duty faithfully; for this will procure you the blessing of Heaven."
- b. When the preceding clause depends on the following, a semicolon is sometimes used; thus, "As coals are to burning coals, and wood to fire; so is a contentious man to kindle strife."
- 464. Rule 2.—When several short sentences follow each other, not having any necessary dependence on each other, they may be separated by a semicolon; as, "Every thing grows old; every thing passes away; every thing disappears."
- 465. RULE 3.—When a sentence contains an *enumeration* of several particulars, the members are generally separated by semicolons;—
- As, "Philosophers assert, that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be propressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries, of which we have not the elightest idea."

The Colon.

- 466. The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semi-colon, but not so independent as to require a period.
- 467. a. Rule 1.—A colon is used when a member of a sentence is complete in itself, both in sense and construction, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration depending upon it in sense, though not in syntax; as, "Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important."
- b. The insertion or omission of a conjunction before the concluding member of a sentence, frequently determines the use of the colon or remicolon. When a conjunction is not expressed before the concluding member, a colon is to be used; but when it is expressed, a sentencion is used; as, "Apply yourself to learning; it will redound to your honour." "Apply yourself to learning; for, it will redound to your honour."
- 468. Rule 2.—When the sense of several members of a sentence, which are separated from each other by semicolons, depends on the last clause, that clause is generally separated from the others by a colon; as, "A Divine Legislator, uttering His voice from heaven; an Almighty Governor, stretching forth His arm to reward or punish: these are considerations which overawe the world, support integrity, and check guilt."
- 460. a. Rule 3.—When an example, a quotation, or a speech is introduced, it is separated from the rest of the sentence either by a semicolon or a colon; as, "The Scriptures give us an

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amiable representation of the Deity, in these words; 'God is love."

b. Several parts of the Lilany, in our church service, are divided by the colon, merely to distinguish the cadences of the chanting service; as, "Thine honourable : true, and only Son."

LESSON 76. b.—The Period.—Exercise 76. b —Page 97.

- 470. a. When a sentence is complete, both in the construction and sense intended, a period must be used; as, "By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed."
- b. The period must be used after all abbreviations; as, "A.D." "M.A." "Fol."
- c. A period is sometimes inserted between sentences which are connected by conjunctions, as the sense and structure of sentences, and not the connective particle, in general, determine whether or not a period is to be used; as, "He who lifts himself up to the observation and notice of the world is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For, he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part."

The Dash.

- 471. a. A dash (-) may be used where the sentence breaks off abruptly, where a significant pause is required, or where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment; as, "And God said,"-what?-" Let there be light."
- b. A Dath is employed—1. To denote a pause longer than a comma; as, "Laborious and patient men of all ranks—inventors and discoverers—all have worked together."—2. Sometimes to introduce a sentence which might commence a fresh paragraph.—3. Sometimes to denote clauses on which we wish the reader to dwell a little.—4. Sometimes to represent a certain hesitancy in speaking; as, "I—regret—to inform you—that the debt—is—still—unpaid."— 5. The Dash is also sometimes employed by writers who have not taken sufficient pains to insert the proper stops.

The Note of Interrogation.

- 472. a. The note of interrogation (?) is inserted at the end of a sentence in which a question is asked; as, "Why do you neglect your duty?"
- d. A note of interrogation must not be used in cases in which a question is only said to have been asked, and in which the words are not used as a question; as, "Your father inquired when I had good news from Leeds." To give this scattene the interrogative form, it should be expressed thus; "When," said your father to me, "had you good news from Leeds?"

The Note of Exclamation.

- 473. a. The note of exclamation (!) is used after expressions of sudden emotion, joy, terror, surprise, &c., and also with invocations or addresses; as, "Eternity! thou pleasing, dreadful thought!"
- b. When Oh is used, the exclamatory point is generally placed immediately after it, or after the next word; ns, "Oh! that I had been more diligent;" but when

O is used, the point is placed after some interening words; as, "O my respected friends!"

c. When the notes of interrogation and exclamation stand at the end of a complete sentence, which is most frequently the case with the note of interrogation, they are equal to the period; when they terminate a clause of a sentence only, their value is that of the point which would otherwise have been placed there. The points of interrogation and exclamation mark an elevation of the voice in reading.

The following characters are likewise used in Composition.

LESSON 77.—Exercise 77.—Page 98.

474. a. A parenthesis () includes a clause inserted in the body of a sentence, containing some necessary information or useful remark, but which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction of the sentence; as,

"Know then this truth (enough for man to know), Virtue alone is happiness below."

- b. The parenthesis, whether short or extended, is evidently a digression in a sentence, and should either be transferred to the following sentence, or be replaced as to read smoothly, and glide at once into our conception. When the clause is short, and coincides with the rest of the sentence, the parenthetical characters are now generally omitted, and commas inserted in their place; as, "Mantan, Milian, and Parma, fruitful provinces of Italy, have often been the theatre of war."
- 475. An apostrophe (') is used when a letter is omitted, or a word abbreviated; as, enrich'd for-enriched: tho' for though. It is likewise the sign of the possessive case, being used instead of a letter which was formerly inserted; as, man's for manes or manis.—It also denotes the plural of words, when used merely as words; as, "Dot your i's, cross your t's." (See 80. c.)
- 476. a. A Macron or small dash (-) over a vowel shows that it is long; as, a, i, ō, in bale, pine, note.—A Brère or small curve (') shows that the vowel is short; as, a, i, o, in bal, pin, not.
- b. The Acute Accent (') denotes the Emphasis on a syllable; as, reg' in reg'ular.—It also denotes a short syllable; as, prom' in prom'ise;—and also the rising Inflexion; as, "The Lord reigneth'."
- c. The Grave Accent (') denotes a long or open vowel; as, farour;—also, the falling Inflexion; as, "We shall write to-day."—It also shows that the vowel over which it is placed requires its full sound; as,

"In his right hand a tipped staffe he held.
With which his feeble steps he started still."

477. A diacresis (") when used to divide a diphthong into two syllables, shows that they are to be pronounced apart, as, acrial.

- 478. An asterisk (*), an obelisk (†), a double dagger (‡), and a parallel (||), with small letters and figures, refer to some note in the margin, or at the bottom of the page.
- 479. (***) Two or three asterisks denote the omission of some letters in a word, or of some bold or indelicate expression, or some defect in the manuscript.
- 480. A brace { is used to connect words which have one connect three lines in poetry, having the same rhyme, called a triplet. Thus,
 - "And the eye tells what every moment shows,
 That Heav'n no bounds in power or bounty knows,
 Almighty when it works, all good when it bestows."
- 481. A caret () is used to show that some word is omitted; as, "You the man." The same mark is called a circumflex, when it is placed over a vowel to denote a long syllable; as, aménable.
- 482. An ellipsis, (-) is used when some letters in a word are omitted; as, k-g, for king.
- 483. Brackets [] are used to enclose a word or phrase which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to rectify some mistake.
- 484. a. A hyphen (-) is used to connect compound words; as, lap-dog, father-in-law. It is used when a word is divided into syllables; as, re-main-ing. When used at the end of a line, it shows that the remaining part of the word is carried to the beginning of the next line, as in several words in the next page. (See 45.)
- b. The term hyphen comes from the Greek, and signifies under one, because two words are thus brought under one.
- c. A hyphen is generally used between two nouns, when one of them signifies something belonging to, used for, or adapted to the other; as, A silk-mill, a mill for spinning silk; a cork-screw, a screw for corks; a kitchen-y ate, a grate for a kitchen.—A hyphen is not used when the first word denotes the material or substance of which the second is mado; as, a silk gown; a stone wall.
 - 485. a. An index (refers to some remarkable passage.
- b. The Cedilla (b), of French origin, is sometimes placed under c, to show that c has the sound of a before a or o; as, faron.
- 480. A section (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions.
- 487. a. A paragraph (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject, but the mark (¶) is never used except in the Old and the New Testament, and in the Book of Common Prayer. In

other books, paragraphs are distinguished by leaving off, and commencing a new line.

- b. Different sublects, unless they are very short, should be separated into paragraphs. When one subject is continued to a considerable length, the larger divisions of it should be put into distinct paragraphs. The facts, premises, and conclusions of a subject, must also be divided into paragraphs.
- c. Paragraphs should not be extended to a great length. If very long, they may not be attentively read, and, if very short, they occasion a difficulty in the connexion. Nor, if possible, must they be of a uniform length, but, on the contrary, must be directified in their extent; for a monotonous sameness is displeasing in this, as well as in other things. (See 695.)
- 488. A quotation is a passage quoted from an author or speaker in his own words, and has two inverted commas at the beginning, and two direct ones at the end; thus, (""); as,
- "A man that rightly knows himself," says Mason, in his Treatise on Self-Knowledge, "is acquainted with his peculiar temptations; and knows when, and in what circumstances, he is in the greatest danger of transgressing."

Directions respecting the use of Capital or Head Letters.

LESSON 78.—Exercise 78.—Page 98.

489. Capitals or head letters are so called from the Latin, caput, the head. Small letters are said to have been first introduced in the serenth century; before that time, only large or capital letters were used for all the words in a volume. Hence, great difficulty would be experienced in reading.

For a long time after the introduction of small letters, every noun hegan with a capital letter, both in writing and printing, but at present, only the following words begin with capital letters:—

- 490.—1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.—Also, the titles of books, with the substantives and principal words in the titles; as, "Euclid's Elements of Geometry;" "Goldsmith's Deserted Village."
- 491.—2. The first word after a period, after a note of interroyation or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one
 after it, are independent of each other; and the first word in
 every line of poetry.
- But, if several interrogative or exclamatory sentences are so connected, that the latter sentences depend on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter; as, "How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people! her is she become as a widow!"
- 492.—3. The names of the *Deity*; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty; also, a personal Pronoun, when applied to the Deity; as, "Hear Him."—Also, titles of honour in a direct address; as, My Lord, Sir, Your Honour, &c.
- 402.—4. The proper names of persons, places, streets, rivers, thips, mountains, &c.; as, Thomas, London, Cheapside, the

- Thames, the Royal George, Snowdon, &c.—Also, common nouns, when personified; as, "Come, gentle Spring."—The names of days, months, particular feasts, and historical events; as, Tuesday, June, Easter, the Reformation.
- 494.—5. Adjectives derived from the *proper names* of persons and places; as, Johnsonian, English, French, Roman.
- 495.—6. The first word of a maxim, an example, or a quotation, when it follows a semicolon or a colon; that is, when it is used in a direct form; as, "Temperance preserves health."

When a quotation is not introduced in a direct form, but follows a comma, the first word must not begin with a capital; as, "Solomon observes, that 'pride goeth before destruction."

- 496.—7. a. The pronoun I, the interjections O, Oh, and most abbreviations begin with capitals; as, "I study;" "Hear, O Israel!" "A.D.," "M.A.," "Fol."
- b. Other words also may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or form the principal subject of the composition.
- 497. a. Italic Letters.—When a writer wishes any word or phrase to be particularly noticed, it is usually printed in *Italics* (or letters which *incline*), especially in works intended for the young or uneducated. In other works, Italics are only sparingly employed.
- b. The words intended to be printed in Italics are underlined by the Author in writing.
- c. Words and phrases from other languages, when introduced into English writings, are generally expressed in *Halicz*; thus, "Stamp duties, the amount of which is regulated according to the value of the property, are termed ad raibrem duties."
- d. Headings.—In beginning any chapter or section, it is recommended to place at the top or commencement, the Subject, as a Heading.
- 493. The manuscripts of the ancients were usually arranged in the form of long narrow rolls of parchment or papyrus, called rolumina, whence our rolume. The words in these volumina were written in Capital letters, without any separation by spaces or marks of punctuation, or any divisions of chapters, paragraphs, or periods, as in modern books. In addition to the want of spaces, points, &c., the manuscripts generally contained numerous contractions, not only of syllables but of whole words, so that the art of reading them easily and correctly was difficult of attainment.

PART V.-PROSODY.

LESSON 79.—Exercise 79.—Page 103.

400. Prosonr explains the nature of the Accent and Quantity of syllables, of Emphases, Pauces, and Tones, and of the laws of Versification. It consists of two parts, Orthopy and Versification.

ORTHOËPY.

500. ORTHOEPT comprises the correct Pronunciation of letters; the Accent and Quantity of syllables; and the nature of Emphasis, Pauses, and Tone.

Directions have already been given with regard to the pronunciation of Letters. (See 12 to 37.)

- 501. a. Accent is a particular etrees of the voice on a certain eyllable in a word, that it may be distinguished from the rest; as, the syllable vir in the word virtue.—The tendency of the English language is to throw the Accent as near the beginning of the word as possible; thus, Del'-icacy, plan'-etary, mon'-archy, effron'-tery.
- b. Accent is of two kinds, primary and tecondary. "Words of one spillable can have no accent. Words of two spillables have the primary accent only. Words of three and four spillables may have both the primary and secondary accent; but many of them have no secondary accent that deserves notice; such as, dignity, annuly, fidily. In words of four, five, or more spillables, a secondary accent is often escential to a clear and distinct articulation of the several syllables."—Wester. In most dictionaries the Primary Accent only is marked; as, Articable; in others, the Primary is marked with two excents ("), and the secondary with one (); as, Accentive, Complainant".
- c. In words of two syllables, those that are purely English have generally the first syllable accented. But when the same word is sometimes a noun or adjective, and sometimes a verb, the accent is on the first syllable of the neun or adjective, and the second of the verb; as, Ab'sence, ab'sent,—absent. In Compound and Derivative words, the long sounds or syllables of the Primitives are frequently shortened. (See 38, c.)
- d. In words of Three Syllables the Accent is mostly either on the First, 22, in Picty, idiom, popular; or on the last lust one; as, in Co-d-qual, com-mistice, de-ev-rum; and least frequently on the last; as, in As-cordain', dis-en-gage'.
- e. In words of Four Sylables, the Accent is—1, never on the Last,—2, rurely on the First, as, in Ad-coursey, erri-coursy;—3, mostly on the Provisional Clark but one), as, in Aca-demide, comprehent-sive;—or 4, on the Antercontinual Clark but two); as, in A-bit-sity; in-cot-ruble.—The words cooling in tion, sica, cious, now, tial, &c. accent the syliable before that termination; as, co-ter-tial.
- f. For other words, concult either Webrier's large Dictionary, or Waller's, and attend to the mode observed by the best speakers.
- 502. The Quantity of a syllable is the time occupied in pronouncing it.—A syllable is long, when the accent is on the

rowel; and short, when the accent is on the consonant. A long syllable requires twice the time in pronouncing it that a short one does. Long syllables are marked thus (-), as, tübe; short syllables thus (-), as, män. In English, syllables are generally considered as accented or unaccented, rather than long or short as in Latin or Greek. (See 476.)

· In Reading—Let every sullable have a full and distinct enunciation.—The words included in a Parenthesis must be pronounced rather more quickly and in a lower roice than the other words of a seatence.

- 503. a. Emphasis denotes that stress of the voice which we lay on some particular *words* or *words* in a sentence, in order to mark their superior importance, and thus more clearly to convey the idea intended by the writer or speaker.
- b. Emphases must be judiciously employed, for when they occur too frequently they are apt to be disregarded. The best general rule is, clearly to comprehend what you are about to read or atter, and then place the emphasis on those words which you would render emphatical if they proceeded from the immediate sentiment of your own mind in private discourse.
- 504. a. Pauses, or rests, are cessations of the voice, in order to enable the reader or speaker to take breath; and to give the hearer a distinct perception of the meaning, not only of each sentence, but of the whole discourse.
- b. Pauses are of two kinds; first, emphatical pauses; and next, such as serve to distinguish the sense.

Emphatical pauses are used after something has been said which is important, and on which we wish to fix the hearer's attention. These pauses must not be used too frequently.—With respect to pauses which serve to distinguish the sense, it is proper to observe, that the voice should be relieved at every stop; slightly at a comma, longer at a semicolon, still more so at a colon, and completely at a period. The sense also sometimes requires pauses which are not represented by points; these are called rhetorical pauses.—An excellent method for pretenting the habit of taking breath too frequently is, to accustom yourself to read sentences of considerable length abounding with long and difficult words.

c. There are likewise two panses peculiar to poetry; the Final panse at the end of each line, and the Caesural panse at or near the middle of the line.

In reading blank terse, the close of each line should be made sensible to the ear, but without either letting the voice fall, or elevating it; it should be marked only by such a slight suspension of sound, as may distinguish the passage from one line to another without injuring the sense.—The Caesural pause divides the line into two parts. It is necessary in every line of eight, ten, or twelve syllables, and is generally placed at the end of the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable.

- 505. a. Intonation is the change or modulation of the voice, when speaking or reading.
- b. The tone of the voice is changed principally at the accent or emphasis. The raising of the voice at the accent or emphasis is called the raing inflection; the sinking of the voice is called the falling inflection. The art of making a proper use of Pauses, Accent, Emphasis, and Intonation, in speaking, reading, or reciting, is called Elocation.
- c. The different passions of the mind must be expressed by different iones of the voice. Lore, by a soft, emooth, languishing voice; anger, by a strong, rehement, and elevated voice; foy, by a quick, sweet, and clear voice; torrow, by a low, flexible, interrupted voice; fear, by a dejected, tremalous, hesitating voice; courage, by a full, bold, and loud voice; and perplexity, by a grave and earnest voice. In exordiums, the voice should be low, yet clear; in narrations, distinct.

In reasoning, slow; in persuasions, strong; it should thunder in anger, solten in sorrow, tremble in fear, and melt in lore.

- d. In an antithesis, the contrary assertion should be pronounced louder than the other. In a climar, the voice should always rise with it. In dialogues, it should after with the parts. The voice should be steadily and firmly supported throughout the sentence, and the concluding words modulated according to the sense.
- e. The best general rule to be observed with respect to Intonation, is to FOLLOW NATURE. Consider how she teaches you to utter any sentiment or feeling of the heart in SENSIBLE ANIMATED CONVERSATION. Think after what manner, with what tones and inflections of voice, you would, on such an occasion, express yourself, when you were most in earnest, and sought most to be listened to by those whom you addressed. Let these be the foundation of your manner of pronouncing in public, and you will take the surest method of rendering your delivery both agreeable and persuasive.
- 503. a. In order to speak and read with grace and effect, attention must also be paid to the proper pitch of the roice.
- b. The roice must be neither too loud nor too low. Acquire each a command over your voice, that you may elevate or lower it according to the number of persons addressed.
- c. The roice must not be filth nor indistinct. Accustom yourself, both in conversation and in reading, to give every sound which you utter its due proportion, so that every word and every reliable may be clearly and distinctly heard.—Many corruptions in language have arisen from an idle clurring pronunciation of words.
- d. The utterance must neither be too quick nor too slow. Convey to the hearer the sense, weight, and propriety of every sentence you read, in a free, full, and deliberate pronunciation.
- 107. Another subject which claims attention, is Gesture or Action. The best rule that can be given on this subject is, to attend to the looks and gestures in which carnestness, indignation, compassion, or any other emotion, discovers itself to the best advantage in the common intercourse of men. Let the motions and gestures which nature thus dictates be those on which your own are formed.

VERSIFICATION.

LESSON 80.—Exercise 80.—Page 103.

- 508. Prose is the ordinary language employed in reasoning and conversation, and is not confined to any arranged number of syllables.
- 500. Portry is language chiefly addressed to the imagination and feelings. In construction, it differs from Prose in requiring a measured arrangement of words in verse, and in admitting a peculiar license in the application of them.
- 510. VERSIFICATION is that measured arrangement of words which chiefly distinguishes the form of poetry from prose. It embraces the Laws of Metre and the peculiarities which distinguish the different kinds of Verse.

511. Poetical License is the peculiar application of certain words in poetry, contrary to the ordinary rules of Grammar. (See 526.)

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- .512. Poetry is written in two forms; namely, Rhyme and Blank Verse.
- a. Rhyme is a term applied to verses that terminate in syllables of the same sound; as,
 - "Indulge the true ambition to excel
 In that best art,—the art of living well."
 - b. In blank verse, the final syllables do not rhyme.

Blank verse may be accounted a noble, bold, and disencumbered species of versification, and in several respects it possesses many advantages over rhyme. It allows the lines to run into one another with perfect freedom; hence, it is adapted to subjects of dignity and force, which demand more free and manly numbers than can be obtained in rhyme. Blank verse is written in the heroic measure, that is, in lines consisting of ten syllables. Milton, Cowper, Wordsworth, Thomson, Akenside, Armstrong, and Pollok, are the principal poets in this species of composition.

- 513. a. A verse is one line, consisting of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to metrical rules.
- b. The Rhythm or harmonious flow of words, depends upon the regular recurrence of accented and unaccented syllables.
- c. A foot is a portion of a verse, consisting of two or more syllables.

A certain number of syllables are named feet, because, by their aid, the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace.

- d. A couplet or distich consists of two lines or verses; a triplet of three. The sense should not, if possible, be carried beyond the second line or couplet.
- e. A hemistich is half a verse.—The term hypercatalectic, hypermeter or redundant, is applied to a verse when it exceeds the regular number of syllables.—A verse shortened by a syllable is called Catalectic or deficient; Acatalectic is the complete verse.
- f. The repetition of the same letter or letters at certain intervals in a line forms what is termed Alliteration; as, "If you trust before you try,—you may repent before you die."
- 514. A stanza or stare is a combination of several verses, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song.
- 515. a. Scanning is dividing a verse into its several feet, in order to ascertain whether their quantity and position are agreeable to the rules of metre.

Metre, or Measure, is the number of poetical feet which a verse contains.

b. All feet used in poetry consist either of two or of three

syllables, and are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three, as follow:-

Dissyllable.

1. An Iambus (v -); as, defend.

2. A Trochee (- \(\cup) \); as, noble.
3. A Spondec (- -); as, Vain man.
4. A Pyrrhic (\(\cup \cup) \); as, on a (hill).

Trisyllable.

5. A Dactyl (- o o); ns, virthous.
6. An Amphibrach (o - o); as, contentment.

7. An Anapaest (U U -); as, intercide. 8. A Tribrach (U U); as, (nn) merable.

- c. In the preceding examples, a dash (-) placed over a vowel shows that it is accented; a breve (-) that it is unaccented, as, in ho-ty. The marks over the vowels will therefore show that in an lambus, the first syllable is unaccented and the second accented; in a Trochee, the first syllable is accented and the second unaccented, and so of the other feet.—Of these feet, the Iambus is the most common; next to it, the Trochee.
- 516. a. The Caesūra, or division, is the variable pause which takes place in a verse, and which divides it into two parts; as,

"The dumb shall sing, I the lame his crutch forego, And leap exulting | like the bounding roe."

- b. The Caesural pause occurs after the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable in a line, and, accordingly as it occurs after one or other of these syllables, the melody of the verse is affected and its air diversified.
- c. When the caesura occurs after the fourth syllable, the verse is lively and spirited; as,

"Her lively looks | a sprightly mind disclose, Quick as her eyes | and as unfix'd as those."

- d. When the caesura falls after the fight syllable, the verre loses that brisk and lively air, and becomes more smooth, gentle, and flowing; as,
 - "Eternal sunshine | of the spotless mind, Each prayer accepted | and each wish resign'd."
- e. When the caesara occurs after the sixth cyllable, the verse becomes solemn. and marches, as it were, with a more measured pace; as,

"The wrath of Pelcus' son, I the direful spring Of all the Greeian woes, | O goddess, sing."

It is sometimes necessary to vary the position of the energies, as too great a uniformity throughout each line tends to produce a tediousness to the car.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF VERSE.

LESSON 81. a.—Exercise 81. a.—Page 103.

517. English verse may be divided into three classes, denominated, from the feet of which they principally consist, the Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic.

The lambus, Trochee, and Anapaest are the principal fortemployed in the construction of English verse; the other feet are only secondary, being chiefly used to diversify the numbers and improve the verse.

Jambie Verse.

518. Jambic Verse, in its various forms, is the most extensively employed of the English Metres. It is adapted to serious and clerated subjects, and has every second, fourth, and other even syllable accented.

- a. The First Form is the Iambic Trim'ēter, which consists of three Iambuses or six syllables. This measure is not extensively used, but occasionally it forms entire hymns, and, when the third line contains Four Iambuses, the stauza constitutes what is called our Short Metre. The following are two examples:—
- 1. Thy wāy | not mīne | Č Lord, | 2. 'Tis God | the Spīr | īt leads
 Hower | er dārk | it bē;
 Lead mē | by Thīne | own hānd,
 Choose out | the pāth | for mē.

 The work | to bē | perform'd | is
 ours,
 The strength | is āll | His own.
 - b. Sometimes it contains an additional syllable; as,
 Ye thir | ty no | ble na | tions,
 Confed | Erate | in one,
 That keep | your star | ry sta | tions,
 Around | the west | ern sun.
- 519. a. The Second Form is the Iambic Tetram'ēter of eight syllables, which, being well adapted to lively Narrative, is much employed by Scott in his Lay, Marmion, &c. It is also much used in hymns; thus,

When we | our wear | ied limbs | to rest, Sat down | by proud | Euphra | tes' stream, We wept | with dole | ful thoughts | oppress'd, And Si | on was | our mourn | ful theme.

b. It is also much employed in Burlesque, as in Butler's comic poem, called Hudibras; sometimes, with an additional short syllable; as,

He was | In Log | Ic a | great crit | te, Profound | If skill'd | In an | alft | te.

- 520. a. The Third Form is the Iambic Pentam'eter, commonly called the Heroic or Epic Measure, which consists of fire Iambuses or ten syllables. The Heroic Measure is the most dignified of English Verse, and is much used, being well adapted to subjects of an elevated character. It may be used either—1. With rhyme, or—2. Without, called Blank Verse; as,
 - None sends | his ar | row to | the mark | in view Whose hand | is fee | ble or | his aim | untrue;
- 2. Now stir | the fire | and close | the shut | ters fast, Let fall | the cur | tains, wheel | the so | fa round, And, while | the bub | bling and | loud hiss | ing urn Throws up | a steam | y col | umn, and | the cups That cheer | but not | ine | briate wait | on each, So let | us wel | come peace | ful ev'n | ing in.
- b. 1. This Measure frequently admits of some variety, particularly at the beginning and end of the line. The first foot is cometimes a Trochee instead of an lumbus; and the last has sometimes a short unaccented syllable attached to the lumbus; as,
 - Dāughter | the God und man, Eccomplished Eve.
 Ten thousand glittering lamps the skies Edorn | Ing.
 - Sometimes a syllable is cut off from the first foot; as,
 I | die af | wer dinner in his chair
 Sit | a far | mer reddly, fat, and fair.

c. Sometimes a line of Six Iambuscs or Tucelre Syllables, called an Alexandrine Verse, is introduced at the close of an Heroic Stanza of nine lines. This mode prevails in Spenser's Faëry Queen, and has been adopted by several modern poets. In stanzas of this kind, the 1st line rhymes with the 3rd; the 2nd with the 4th, 5th, and 7th; and the 6th with the 8th and last; thus—

Some high or humble enterprise of good
Contemplate, till it shall possess thy mind,
Become thy study, pastime, rest, and food,
And kindle in thy heart a flame refin'd.
Pray Heav'n for firmness, thy whole soul to bind
To this thy purpose—to begin, pursue,
With thoughts all fixed, and feelings purely kind;
Strength to complete, and with delight review,
And grace | to give | the praise | where all | is an | er due.

521. a. The Fourth Form is the Iambic Heptam'ëter, which consists of Seven Iambuses, or Fourteen Syllables;—

Attend | all ye | who let | to hear | our no | ble Eng | land's praise, I sing | of the | thrice fa | mous deeds | she wrought | in an | cient days, When that | great fleet | invin | cible | against | her bore | in vain, The rich | est spoils | of Mex | ice, | the stont | est hearts | in Spain.

b. Psalms and Hymns were formerly written in this measure; as,

Thou didst, | O migh | ty God! | exist | ere time | began | its race.

But these lines are now generally broken into verses, containing alternately Four and Three Feet; as,

Thou didst, | O migh | ty God! | exist |
Ero time | began | its race; |
Before | the am | ple el | ements |
Fill'd up | the void | of space.

c. Sometimes the first and third lines consist of Three Iambuses and an additional syllable; as,

From Green [Lind's I] cy moun | tains, From India's corn! strand, Where AI | ric's sun | ny foun | tains Roll down their golden sand.

522. a. The Fifth Form is the Iambic Octom'eter, consisting of Eight Iambuses, or Sixteen Syllables. Formerly Psalms and Hymns were also written in this measure; as,

All peo | plo that | on earth | do dwell, a sing to | the land | with cheer | tal relea.

This is now broken into Sianzas, each containing Four Tetrameter lines, and forming our Long Metre pealms or hymne; thus,

All peo | ple that | on earth | do dwell, |
Sing to | the Lord | with cheer | ful voice,
Him serve | with fear, | His praise | forth tell, |
Come ye | before | Him, and | rejeice. |

- b. The following Forms of Iambic Verse are, for the sake of variety, occasionally introduced into stanzas, but are too short to constitute, of themselves, either an entire ode, or any number of lines.
 - 1. Of one lambus, with an additional syllable; as,

 Consent | ing.

 Repent | ing.
 - 2. Of two Iambuses; as,

What place [Is here.] What scenes [appear.]

3. This form sometimes assumes an additional syllable; as,

Ŭpon | a moun | tain. Beside | a foun | tain.

Trochaic Verse.

LESSON 81. b.—Exercise 81. b.—Page 106.

523. Trochaic Verse is adapted to lively, cheerful subjects, as well as to those which are devotional. It has the first, third, and other odd syllables accented, and comprises verses of various lengths. The following are those most commonly used:—

1. a. The Trochaic Trim'eter consists of Three Trochees, or six syllables; as,

Dāngërs | dō nŏt | dāre mĕ, | Tērrŏrs | cānnŏt | scāre mĕ; | Gōd mỹ | guīde, ηll | beār mĕ, | Mānfūl | ly fŏr | ēvĕr.

b. When this form admits an additional syllable, it is capable of being extended through entire odes and hymns, and is much used; thus,

All ăre | ārchī | tēcts ŏf | fāte,
Wörking | īn thěse | wālls ŏf | Tīme,
Sōme with | māssīve | dēēds ănd | greāt,
Some with | orna | ments of | rhyme.
Nothing | useless | is, or | low,
Each thing | in its | place is | best,
And what | seems but | idle | show
Strengthens | and sup | ports the | rest.

2. a. 'The Second Form is the Trochaic Tetram'ēter, consisting of Four Trochees, or eight syllables; as,

Māy, thǒu | mōnth ŏf | rōsy | beaūty, Mōnth whèn | plēasure | īs ă | dūty; Month of | bees, and | month of | flowers, Month of | blossom- | laden | bowers.

b. This form, when varied in the second and fourth lines by the Trochaic Trimeter of three Trochees and a long syllable, is much used, particularly in hymns; as,

Săviour, | breathe ăn | ēv'ning | blessing | Ere re | pôse our | spirits | seal, Sin and | want we | come con | fessing, Thou canst | save, and | Thou canst | heal. 3. The Trochaic Pentameter, not much used, consists of Five Trochees, or ten syllables, with sometimes an additional syllable; as,

All that | walk on | foot or | ride in | chari | ots, All that | dwell in | pala | ces or | garrets.

4. The Trochaic Herameter, also rarely used, consists of Six Trochees or twelve syllables; as,

On a | mountain | stretched be | neath a | hoary | willow, Lay a | shepherd's | swain, and | view'd the | rolling | billow.

5. The following are only occasionally used:-

a. Of one Trockee and an additional syllable; as,

Tomblt | cease, Eink to | peace.

b. Of two Troches; or of two and an additional syllable; as,

Within pring.

In the days of file.

Thoughts six | prining.

Stories | plainly | wid.

Anapaeetic Measure.

- 524. The Anapactic Measure is adapted both to solemn and cheerful subjects. The principal forms are the following:—
- 1. a. The First Form, called the Anapaestic Director, is not much used;—it consists of Two Anapaests, or six syllables; as,

All our la | bour must fail, If the wick | ed prevail.

- e. Sometimes an unaccented syllable is added; as, In the care | If the moon | tim, By the side | If the four | tim,
- 2. a. The Second Form, which is very much used, is the Anapacetic Trimeter, consisting of Three Anapacets, or nine syllables; as,

I am mon | arch of all | I sarvey, |

Mỹ rīght | there is none | to dispate, |

From the cen | tre all round | to the sea |

I am lord | of the fowl | and the brute.

b. Sometimes a syllable is omitted in the first foot; thus,

Hör flöt | is the glance | of the mind;
Compard | with the speed | of its flight,
The ten | pest itself | ligs behind,
And the swift | winged ar | rows of light.

3. a. The Third Form is the Anapaestic Tetrameter, consisting of Four Anapaests or twelve ryllables; as,

The Assyr | ian came down | like the wolf | en the fold, And his co | horts were plann | inz in pur | ple and gold; And the sheen | of their spears | was like stars | on the sea, When the bine | wave rolls night | ly on deep | Galiles. b. This form sometimes contains an additional syllable; as, On the warm | cheek of youth | smlles and ro | ses were blend | ing.

525: The preceding are the Principal Metres in their simple or regular forms; but, sometimes, the sentiment requires a variation from the usual mode. This can be effected, either by the intermixture of the principal feet with one another, or by the admission of secondary feet, as seen in the following examples, or by the peculiar application of certain words in poetry, called *Poetical License*. (See *Lesson* 82.)

a. The Pyrrhic mixed with the Iambic. And it | the dead | my will | ing soul | shall go.

b. The Spondee with the lambic.

Förbear, | great man, | In arms | renown'd, | förbear.

c. The Trochee with the Iambic.

Tyrant | and slave, | those names | of hate | and fear.

d. The Iambic with the Anapaestic. My sor | rows I then | might assuage | In the ways of religion and truth.

c. The Dactyl with the Trochaic.
 Glörioüs | things of | thee are | spoken, | Zion, | city | of our | God.

Poctical License.

LESSON 82.—Exercise 82.—Page 108.

- 520. a. LANGUAGE OF POETRY.—The Language of Poetry is in general brief, frequently suggesting more than what is expressed. In addition to this, many antiquated words and idioms, as well as irregularities of syntactical construction, are allowed, which are altogether inadmissible into good Prose. The deviations from the ordinary grammatical arrangement may sometimes be necessary, to suit the peculiar metre and euphony of the verse; but, the employment of antiquated words and idioms will chiefly depend on the poet's own predilection for this kind of expression.
- b. Poetical License (as stated in 511) is the term exployed to denote the application of certain words in Poetry contrary to the ordinary rules of Grammar. The following are the principal peculiarities:—
- 527. Antiquated words and constructions are frequently introduced into Poetry which, though common in the ages of Elizabeth and the Stuarts, are now obsolete in good Prose. Thus,
 - Words.—a. "Shall I receive by gift, what of my own When and where likes me best, I can command?"
 - b. "Long were, to tell what I have seen."
 - 2. Modes of Construction.—a. "He knew to sing, and build the lefty rbyme."
 - b. "Meanwhile, whate'er of beautiful or new-was offer'd to his view."

- 523. The poets sometimes imitate the Latin and Greek modes of construction; as,
 - a. Give me to reize rich Nestor's shield=(permit me to seize).
 - b. There are, who, deaf to mad ambition's call ≈ (there are persons who, &c.).
 - c. Yet to their general's voice they all obeyed= (cancel to).
 - d. How much of knowledge=(omit ef).
- 520. Sometimes words are abbreviated, at other times lengthened; as,
 - a. Amuse for amazement, lone for lonely, ore for open, oft for often.
 - b. Begirt for girt, evanishes for vanishes.
 - e. Sometimes they form the Adjective in y; as, Towary height for fovering.
 - 530. The Syntactical order of words is frequently changed .-
- a. By placing the Adjective after the Noun; as, "Showers on her kings tarbarie," instead of "barbaric kings."
 - b. By putting the Nominative after the Verb, and the Objective before it; as,
 - " No bive hast thou of boarded sweets," for, " thou hast."
 - "A transient calm the happy scenes better, -instead of"The happy scenes bestow a transient calm."
 - e. By placing a newler Verb at the beginning of a sentence; as,
 - " Roar the mountains, thundersall the ground," for " the mountains roar," &c.
 - d. By placing the Infinitive before the word on which it depends; as,
 - "When first thy sire to send on earth Virtue, his darling child, design'd," for "designed to send."
 - e. By placing Adrer's before the words which they qualify; as,
 - "The ploughtran homeward plots his weary way," for
 "Plots homeward his weary way."
- f. By placing Propositions and their cases before the words which they eaght to follow; as," Thou sun, of the great world both eye and sont?"
- g. By placing the Proposition after its case; as, "Where Eaho walks steep hills among."
- h. By removing Relatives and other connectives into the body of their classes; ac.
 - "A ball parts the fine looks her general head that deek."
 "Grievel though thou art, forbear the rash design."
- 531. The poets omit, 1, sometimes the Article: 2, sometimes the Noun: 3, sometimes the Antecedent: 4, sometimes the Relative: 5, sometimes the Principal Verb, retaining only the Anxiliary: 6, sometimes the Proposition:—as,
 - 1. The Art Sei as, " The Itiak of othe America stream."
 - 2. The Neva; as, " Lives there (the man) who loves his pain? "
 - 2. The Anteredeut; and () e) "Who never facts, no banquet e'er enjoye."
 - 4. The Relatice; as, " For is there angle in sleep (that) can charm the wise ?"
 - t. c. The Vert emitted; as," To allow thus Adam" (epolic).
 - L. The Aurillary used alone; as, " Appels c ald (do) no more."
 - & The Proposition emitted; as, "He mourn'd (for) no recreat friend."

- 532. The poets sometimes violate the grammatical propriety of certain words.
- 1. By connecting Adjectives with substantives which they do not properly quality; as, "The tenants of the warbling shade."
- 2. By substituting Adjectives for Adverbs; as, "They fall successive and successive rise."
- 3. By giving Newter verbs an active government; as, "Virtue may hope (for) her promised crown."
- 4. By giving the uncompounded form of the 1st and 3rd Persons Imperative, instead of the regular form; as, "Turn we a moment;" "Fall he that must."
- 5. By joining a positive with a comparative, instead of employing two comparatives; as, "Near and more near the billows rise."
- 6. By employing both the noun and its pronoun to the same verbs; thus, "My banks, they are furnished with trees."
- 7. By using or—or (for either—or), nor—nor (for neither—nor); as, "Nor grief nor pain shall break my rest."
- 533. In their choice of words, the poets, to promote Harmony or Rhythm, sometimes adopt those which denote, first, particular sounds; secondly, motion; and thirdly, the passions and emotions of the mind:
- a. First, by a proper choice of words, a resemblance of other sounds intended to be described may be produced: thus, we can say, "The whistling of winds," "The hiss of serpents," "The crash of falling timber."
- In describing harsh sounds, words composed of syllables which are difficult
 of pronunciation are generally used; thus, in Milton,

On a sudden open fly,
With impetuous recoil, and jarring cound,
Th' infernal doors; and on their hinges grate
Harsh thander."

In this sentence, a grating sound is well expressed by the jarring r and hissing s.

2. In describing succe and soft sounds, words formed principally of liquids and vowels are the most appropriate, as in the following instance:—

Heaven opened wide Her ever-during gates, harmonious sound, On golden hinges turning."

- b. Secondly, Words may be used to represent, to a certain degree, quick or slow motion. Long syllables are used to represent slow motion; as in this line,
 - "O'er hills, o'er dales, o'er crags, o'er rocks they go."

Slowness or difficulty in operation may also be indicated by a succession of aspirates; thus,

"Up the high hill he heares a huge round stone."

Stort syllables are used to describe rapid motion, as in the following line:—

"Flies o'er the unbending corn, and skims along the main."

c. Thirdly, Words are sometimes used as imitative of the passions and emotions of the mind.

Thus, a poet, in describing pleasure, joy, and other agreeable objects, from the feeling of his subject, anturally runs into smooth, liquid, and flowing numbers. Brisk and lively sensations require quicker and more animated numbers; while melancholy and gloomy subjects are expressed in slow mensures and long words.

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE.

Note.—Figurative Language may be deferred by many pupils, till the chapters from "Verbal Criticism," p. 203, to "Sequence of Sentences," inclusive, p. 211, have been completed.

LESSON 83.—Exercise 83.—Page 119.

534. THE FIGURES OF SPEECH are deviations either from the usual form or spelling of words, from their syntactical construction, or from their proper and literal meaning.

They are divided into, I. the Figures of Orthography; II. of Syntax; and III. of Rhetoric.

L-FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

535. The Figures of Orthography are deviations from the usual form or spelling of words, and consist of Elision, Prosthisis, Paragogē, Synacresis, Diarresis, and Thesis.

Elision signifies cutting off a letter or syllable, either at the beginning, middle, or end of a word. Elision thus consists of three kinds, usually denominated Aphārrēsis, Syncopē, and Apocopē.

- a. Aphacresis takes away a letter or a syllable from the beginning of a word; as, 'gan for began: 'gainst for against: 'plaint for complaint.
- b. Syncope rejects a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; as, lov'd for loved; semight for sevennight.
- c. Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the end: as, th for the: morn for morning: vale for ralley, scant for seanty.
- 530. Prothesis prefixes a letter or syllable to the Leginning of a word: as, en-chain, dis-part, for chain, part.
- 587. Paragogê adds a letter or syllable to the end; as, arrales for awake.
- 538. Synaerècie is the contraction of two vowels or of two syllables into one; as, as in Israel, is in alienate, pronounced as

if written Is-ral, al-ye-nate. Two words, also, are frequently contracted into one; as, 'Tis for it is; 't was for it was; we'll for we will.

- 539. Diaerėsis is the division of one syllable into two, by placing the mark "over the latter of two vowels; as, in zoölogy. This figure very rarely occurs in English.
- 540. Tracsis (pr. mesis) separates a compound word, by putting a word between; as, "To God ward," that is, "Toward God."

The preceding figures, being almost exclusively confined to *Poetry*, are seldom admitted into Prose.

II.—FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

- 541. The Figures of Syntax are Ellipsis, Pleonasm, Enăllăge, and Hyperbaton.
- 542. a. Ellipsis is the omission of words necessary to supply the regular or full construction. (See 443.)
- b. When different persons are jointly spoken of, the verb and pronoun agree with the first person rather than with the second, and with the second rather than with the third, by the figure called Syllepsis; thus, I and thou, I and he, are sylleptically the same as we; you and he the same as we or you.
- c. Apposition signifies the concord existing between two or more nouns under the same regimen; as, " William the king."
- 543. a. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words; as, "I went home full of a great many serious reflections." Here, the words a great many must be cancelled, as unnecessary. So, in "this here," "that there," the words here and there must be omitted.
- b. Pleonasm is a fault to be avoided in writing, except in expressions of earnest-ness of affirmation on an interesting subject, in solemn language, or in poetical description; as, "We have seen with our eyes;"—"The sea-girt isle."
- c. Polysyndeion, or the repetition of a conjunction, is a figure employed when we wish to duell on each particular; as, "Power, and wisdom, and goodness, shine forth in the works of creation."
- d. Periphrasis is the use of several words to denote one object; as, "The juice of the grape," for wine; "The Lord of hosts," for the Almighty; "The fair sex," for women. This figure is frequently necessary to render our meaning distinct.
- 544. Enallage is the use of one part of speech for another, and is confined to poetry; as, "Slow rises merit, when by poverty depressed."
- 545. Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; as, "Come, nymph demure." This figure frequently imparts energy to a sentence, and is very common in poetry,

III_FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

LESSON 84 -- Exercise 84 -- Page 119.

- 546. a. The Figures of Rhetoric are deviations from the proper and literal meaning of a word or phrase.
- b. A word is said to be used literally, when it is employed to describe any thing according to the ordinary mode of expression; and figuratizely, when, though retaining its usual signification, it is applied in a manner different from its common application. Thus, when I use the word pillar as supporting an edifice, I employ it literally: but when, speaking of a man, I say, "He is the pillar of the state," I use it figuratizely. For though, in the latter example, the word pillar is used in its common signification, to denote that which supports something placed upon it, yet it is applied to an object different from those to which it is usually applied. Instead of being applied to a solid mass of stone, &c., supporting a material edifice, it is applied to an intelligent being supporting the state.
- 547. Figurative Language is, in general, the expression of a lively imagination, employing words which, originally, were descriptive of scasible objects only, but which, from an apparent affinity, are equally applicable to mental perceptions. Thus, we speak of a picroing judgment, a clear head, a soft or a hard heart. We also say inflamed by anger, swelled with pride, milled with grief; and these terms are almost the only significant words which we have for such ideas.
- 448. Figures are frequently divided into Figures of Words and Figures of Thought.
- a. Figures of Words are commonly called Tropes. A Trope consists in a word's being employed to signify something that is different from its original and primitive meaning, so that if we alter the word we destroy the figure. Thus in the sentence, "Light ariseth to the upright indurkness," the trope consists in "light and darkness," not being meant literally, but substituted for confort and aftersity, on account of some resemblance or analogy which light and darkness are approach to hear to those conditions of life. Under Tropes may be comprised—Metry her comparison or simile), allegery (with failes and parables), misonymy, syncolocie, trope, hyperfeels, artenemata, and cay tenum.
- b. Figures of Thought suppose the words to be used in their proper and literal meaning, and the figure to consist in the turn of the sentement. They appear in Resemplatives, apartes be, antitives, interropation, exclamates, which, were the words varied, or trunslated from one language into another, the rame figure in the thought varied by preserved. In the following power, however, we shall consider Taylor as 1 Figures as synonymous, and treat of them us for the same lead.
- 549. THE ADVANTAGES OF FIGURE OF SOMETH—First Figures of Specific oight of the property by realizing it makes a provide would a Tany of the respect to the provide provide and realized participations of the realization of the section of the realization of the provide state of the realization of the

or throw light upon it. For they frequently render an abstract conception, in some degree, an object of sense, by surrounding it with such circumstances as enable the mind to lay hold of it steadily, and contemplate it fully.—Fourthly, Figures sometimes contribute in producing confiction, as truth is thus conveyed to the mind in a more lively and foreible manner than it otherwise could be, as in the following example: "A heart boiling with violent passions will always send up infatuating fumes to the head." An image that thus presents so much congruity between a moral and a sensible idea, serves, like an argument from analogy, to enforce what the author asserts, and to induce belief.—Fifthly, Whether we endeavour to raise sentiments of pleasure or arerrion, we can always heighten the emotion by the figures which we introduce, by leading the imagination to a train either of agreeable or diagreeable, of exalting or debasing ideas, correspondent to the impression which we seek to make.

- 550. The following are the principal Figures of Rhetoric:—Comparison or Sim'ile, Metaphor, Met'onym'y, Synec'doche or Comprehension, Personification or Prosopopeia, Apos'trophe, Allegory, Antith'esis, Allusion, Hyper'bole, Irony, Sarcasm, Paralep'sis, Interrogation, Exclamation, Vision, Repetition or Climax.
- 551.—1. a. A SIMILE or FORMAL COMPARISON is the resemblance in some one particular between two objects of different kinds or species. This resemblance is expressed by the words like or as: thus, we can say of a horse, "He is as swift as the wind;" and of a man, "He is as firm as a rock." Here the resemblance between a horse and the wind is in swiftness, and between a man and a rock in strength.
- b. As comparisons must be instituted between objects of different species, it is improper to compare one man with another, one arbor with another, or one army with another, &c. The objects must always be attached to different species; thus, we can properly compare A hero to a lion, night to old age, life to an ocean, an army to a torrent. So, we may compare a mighty poet, who pours his thoughts in the violence and rapidity of verse, to a river swollen with rain hurrying all before it.—Objects of Comparison, therefore, must be those of different kinds,—while those of Contrast are of the same kind.
- c. As Comparisons imply some degree of deliberation, they appear inconsistent with the expression of violent passion. On such occasions, metaphors may, with propriety, be introduced.
- 552. a. Rule for the Application of Similes.—A Simile must be striking, natural, and suitable to the subject and the occasion; as, "The music was like the memory of joys that are past, pleasant and mournful to the soul." Here the comparison is made not between one kind of music and another, but, between music and the memory of joys that are past. The resemblance is therefore happy and striking, and awakens all the tender sensibilities suggested by the objects of comparison.
- b. The preceding rule will exclude all comparisons that are too trite and obvious, too faint and remote, or too difficult for ordinary apprehension; or which are not suitable either to the subject or the occasion.
- c. A due regard must, of course, be had to the class of readers whom we are addressing. What is true to well-informed persons, may possibly be new to others. And, again, a comparison which is quite allowable now, may, in the advance of knowledge, fall under the objection just mentioned. In either case, however, the rule will hold good.

553. A Comparison is sometimes introduced purposely to lessen or depreciate an object. This is effected by associating the principal subjects with something low or despicable; thus, Milton compares the fallen angels to a herd of goals:—

The overthrown he rais'd, and, as a kerd Of gasts or limerous feets together throug'd. Drove them before him thunderstruck, pursued With terrors and with faries to the bounds And erretal wall of hear'n, which opening wide Roll'd inward, and the spacious gap disclos'd Into the wasteful deep.

LESSON 85 .- Exercise 85 .- Page 119.

- 554.—2. a. Metaphor.—A Metaphor is founded on the resemblance which one object bears to another; and differs from a simile only in being expressed in a shorter form (generally in one word), without the signs of comparison like or as: thus, "Thy word is a lamp to my feet." In this example, lamp is used metaphorically to affirm that the Divine word instructs men in the course of conduct to be pursued, just as a lamp directs them in the dark how to choose their footsteps.
- b. When I say, "Man is like a wolf to man," I use a simile; but when I say, "Man is a wolf," I employ a metaphor. When a writer, therefore, designates man as a wolf, he must describe only such of the qualities and appearances of the wolf as are suitable to his subject. Caution is necessary to know at what point the resemblance ceases. Thus, were he to say, "Man is a wolf to man, that murders and devours his fellows," he would be extending the metaphor too far. A wolf may be said "to kill and devour," but, not to murder his fellows.
 - 555. There are four sources of Metaphors:-
- 1st. When the resemblance lies between Rational and Irrational animals: thus, Our Saviour is styled "the Lamb of God." Cicero styles Piso "the rulture of the province."
- 2nd. When the resemblance lies between Rational Beings and Inanimate objects: thus, Jesus is frequently styled "a rise, a door," &c.; Chatham was designated "the bulicark of the state."
- 3rd. When the resemblance lies between Irrational animals and Immirate objects: as, "His horses have become the Charpbells (vortex) of his estate."
- 4th. When the resemblance lies between one Insummte object and another; as, "Her hand encircled bore a bracelet starred with gents." "Old age is the smeet of life."

- 556. Rules for the Application of Metaphors.—Rule 1.—a. As a metaphor is founded on the resemblance between two objects, that resemblance must be so evident, that what is affirmed of the one may be equally applicable to the other; thus, the Psalmist says, "The Lord is my rock and my fortress, my deliverer, my God, my strength, in whom I will trust."
- b. REMARKS.—The reader, acquainted with the state of Eastern countries when the Psalmist nttered these words, will readily perceive the appositeness of the metaphors employed in this example. In a country infested by numerous banditti, what so suggestive of security as a rock defended by a fortress t—or what so consolatory as the conviction that should a sudden attack be made, a deliverer was at hand, his own God, his strength? So, metaphorically, in a moral and spiritual sense, the man whose hopes and aims and principles are built on God, possesses a rock and fortress against every maranding spiritual adversary that would attempt to disturb his peace, or rob him of his heavenly inheritance.
- c. According to the preceding rule, metaphors that are forced or far-fetched must be avoided. Thus, were a poet to say, "tenacious paste of solid mill;" instead of the simple word "cheese," he would be introducing a metaphor that was forced and inelegant.
- d. As Metaphors are intended to illustrate a subject, they must not be taken from the more abstruse branches of the arts and sciences, with which few persons may be acquainted; on the contrary, they should be derived from the most frequent occurrences of art or nature, or from the civil transactions and customs of markind.
- 557. Rule 2.—a. Metaphors should be suited to the nature of the subject of which we treat. Some are allowable, nay, beautiful, in poetry, which are inadmissible in prose; some may be graceful in orations, which would be very improper in historical or philosophical composition. Care, therefore, is requisite to employ only those metaphors which are neither too lively nor too elevated for our subject; that we may neither attempt, by means of them, to force the subject into a degree of elevation which is not consistent with it, nor, on the other hand, allow it to sink below its proper dignity. In a serious discourse, therefore, to speak of "thrusting religion down our throats," degrades the subject by the meanness of the metaphor.
- b. This Bule is also frequently violated by combining objects which have no correspondence. Thus, Shakspeare says, "He cannot buckle his distempered cause within the belt of rule." It is evident that there can be no resemblance between n distempered cause and any body that can be confined within a belt.
- 558. Rule 3.—a. In constructing a metaphor, the writer should confine himself to the simplest expressions, and employ such words only as are literally applicable to the imagined nature of his subject. He must also carefully avoid intermixing plain and figurative language when describing the same object; otherwise, one part of the description will be understood literally, and the other metaphorically.

Finishion.—"A stable or and unconquerable fame errors in his veins, and drasts the stream of life." The writer has been comparing a ferente a fame, and eacht not to have employed any words that were not applicable to the incaphor. A fame may be supposed to error in a man's veins, but can never be said to drink a stream.

- b. The preceding rule requires consistency of lunguage in the expression of a metaphor; thus, if we speak of the passions as being inflanced, we must not at the same time speak of rooting them one, but of extinguishing them; if we speak of a rooted prejudice, it must not be subdued or extinguished, but cradicated.
- 559. Rule 4.—a. In describing the same subject, we must avoid joining together different or mixed metaphors.

Fiolations.—Addison, symbling of the frailty of our nature, says, "There is not a single view of human nature which is not sufficient to extinguish the weds of pride." A view may enable us to directe the beauty of an object, but can never be said to extinguish it.—Again, "I bridle in my structing muse with pain, That longs to launch into a bolder strain." The muse, if figured as a horse, may, indeed, be bridled, but when we speak of launching, we make it a ship; and by no force of the innerination can it be supposed both a horse and a ship at one moment; bridled to prevent it launching!

- b. When we are in doubt, whether the metaphors introduced are or are not of the mired kind, we should try to form a picture from them, and consider how the parts would agree, and what sort of a figure the whole would present, when delineated with a pencil. By this means we become sensible whether, as in the faulty instances just given, inconsistent circumstances are mixed, and a monstrous image thereby produced; or whether the object is presented throughout in one natural and consistent point of view.
- c. We should avoid not only mixing metaphors on the same subject, but also crowding them together.

Pulation.—"There is a time when factions, by the vibemence of their fermentation, stun and disable one another." In this sentence, factions are represented, first, as discredant foods, the mixture of which produces violent fermentation; and afterwards, operations and effects are imputed to them which belong only to sold bedder in metion. It would be projet to say. "There is a time when factions maim and dismember one another by forcible collision."

563. Rule 5.—a. Metaphors should not be pursued too far. When we dwell too long upon the resemblance on which the figure is founded, and carry it into all its minute circumstances, we fatigue the reader by this play of fancy, and reader our discourse obscure. This is called straining a metaphor.

Veleties.—"The religious," says Herver, "seem to lie in the bosom of the earth, as a way pilet in some well she here thank. Therethey enjoy safe anchorace, as in an absent of sombising macra the sins of preraiting inlightly, or of bound of preraiting to the rolk of trappetion. But, one has, we shall boled there he has of here," See . Such infinite hinguage as this serves not to instruct, but to distruct.

1. Metaphers, expressed by single result, may be introduced on every oversion, in m the most careless effusions of conversation to the most positionate expressions of tragedy, and, on all

these occasions, they are, perhaps, the most beautiful and significant language that can be employed. The following is an instance:—

"Man!

Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear."

Remarks.—Here the writer, under a deep impression of the varieties in the life of man, in a sudden, striking manner, calls him a pendulum, leaving it to the excited imagination of the reader to trace out the resemblance.

561. a. Extended Metaphors, which are very appropriate to Descriptive Poetry and the higher species of Oratory, require great care and skill to preserve consistency throughout. Pope frequently employs them with effect, as in the following instance:—

"Let us (since life can little else supply
Than just to look about us and to die)
Expatiate free o'er all the scene of man,
A mighty maze, but not without a plan;
A wild, where weeds and flowers promiseuous shoot;
A garden, tempting with forbidden fruit.
Together let us beat the ample field,
Try what the open, what the covert yield;
The latent tracks, the giddy heights explore,
Of those who blindly creep, or sightless soar."

b. REMARKS.—In metaphors of this kind, all the particulars of the primary subject should have others corresponding to them in the metaphorical one. Care, therefore, should be taken that their qualities be not interchanged, and that those particulars which belong to the primary subject only, may never appear in the metaphorical one. In the preceding example, the "mighty maze" may represent the human constitution. The "plan" may be the leading principles and feelings of human nature. The "weeds and flowers" are virtues and vices, weaknesses and abilities. The "forbidden fruit" is temptation to irregular indulgence or passion. The "open parts" designate the knowledge which we can acquire and enjoy. By "the covert" is meant such workings of the mind or economy of the body as we cannot explain. The "latent track" may denote abstruse speculations; and "giddy heights" may signify ambitious designs.

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562.—3. a. Mer'onym'r is the change of such names as have some relation to each other; as when we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause, the container for the thing contained, the sign for the thing signified.

Thus, 1. The cause for the effect, or, the author for his works; as, "I am reading Virgil," that is, his works.—2. The effect for the cause; as, "Gray hairs should be respected," that is, old age.—3. The container for the thing contained; as, "The kettle boils," meaning the water; "A flourishing city," meaning the inhabitants.—4. The sign for the thing signified; as, "He assumes the sceptre," that is, "He assumes the sovereignty." (See 668.)

- b. Antonomaria is when an office or dignit; is used for some individual, or when a distinguished man is called by some particular name; as, when a great orator is styled a Demosthen's or a Cicero:—a wise man is called a Solomon:—a patient man, a Job;—a strong man, a Samion, &c.
- 563.—4. a. A SYNEC'DÖCHE, or Comprehension, is when the whole is put for a part, or a part for the whole, a definite for an indefinite number, &c.; as, "Man returns to the dust," meaning only his body; "He earns his bread," meaning all the necessaries of life.
- b. Caution.—In applying a synecdoche, care must be taken, that if a part is once used to represent the whole, or the whole to represent a part, the same mode must be preserved throughout, in order to avoid a confusion of terms and ideas.
- 564.—5. Personification, or Prosopopeia, is that figure by which we ascribe intelligence and personality to irrational animals and inanimate things; as, "My children, the aged Goat replies;" "The thirsty ground;" "The angry ocean;" "The mountains saw Thee, O Lord, and trembled."
- 565. a. The lowest kind of Personiscation is when we attribute some of the properties or qualities of living creatures to inanimate objects; as, "The angre occan,"—"a furious dart,"—"a senting mora,"—"the sullen eky." Expressions of this kind are very common in Descriptive Poetry.
- b. A second and higher kind is when inanimate objects or abstract ideas are introlneed as acting in a more sustained manner, like living creatures. This species of Personification is very frequently exhibited in poetical descriptions, and in the highest species of Oratory. The following is an instance from Thomson:—
 - "But yonder comes the powerful king of day, Rejoicing in the east. The lessening cloud, The kindling azure, and the mountain's brow Illum'd with field gold, his near approach Betoken glad."
- c. The third and highest kind is when inanimate objects and irrational beings are introduced not only as feeling and acting, but also as littening and speaking. This kind is appropriate only for representing some strong emotion, either of love, anger, indignation, or of grief, remorse, or melancholy. The following address of Satan, when left in terment by the Messiah, is a fair specimen:—
 - "O Earth, Earth, Earth! cannot my grouns pervade Thy stony heart to embourel me alive Under this rock, before to-morrow's run Find me here weltering in the sordid dust, A spectacle of scorn to all my host, Wont to behold in me their kingly chief?"
- d. Caution.—In prote composition, this figure requires to be used with great moderation and delicacy, for the same assistance cannot be obtained as in poetry for raising passion to its proper height by the force of numbers and the glow of rtyle.
- 566.—6. An Apostrophe is a turning off from the subject of discourse to address some other person, dead or absent, or some object, as if that person or object were actually before the speaker: thus David, in his lamentation over Saul and Jonathan, says, "How are the mighty fallen in the midst of the battle! O'Jonathan, then wast slain in thy high places. I am distressed for thee, my brother Jonathan; very pleasant hast thou been unto me; thy love to me was wonderful."

567.—7. An Allegory is a series of metaphors continued through an entire narration, and represents one subject by another which is analogous to it. The subject thus represented is not formally mentioned, but will be easily discovered by reflection.

Thus, the Psalmist (Ps. lxxx. 8—16) depicts the Jevish nation under the symbol of a rine:—"Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: Thou hast east out the heatben, and p'anted it. Thou prepareds toom before it, and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly codars. She sent out her boughs unto the sea, and her branches unto the river. Why hast Thou broken down ber hedges, so that all they which pass by the way do pluck her? The boar out of the wood doth waste it, and the wild beast of the field doth devour it."

568. Caution.—In an Allegory, as well as in a Metaphor, such terms only must be employed as are literally applicable to the representative subject; nor must any circumstance be added that is not strictly appropriate to this subject, however justly it may apply to the principal, either in a figurative or in a proper sense. Thus if, in the example just given, instead of describing the vine as wasted by the boar out of the wood and decoured by wild beasts, the Psalmist had said, that it was afflicted by the heathen, or overcome by enemies, this would have destroyed the allegory, and produced the same confusion that has been remarked in those metaphors in which the figurative and the literal sense are confounded together.

569. a. Allegories are the same as falles or paralles, which, in ancient times, formed a favourite method of imparting instruction; what is called the moral, is the simple meaning of the allegory.

b. Many Allegories occur in the Scriptures, of which Nathan's reproof of David (2 Sam. rii. 1—7) and the Parables of our Lord are instances. Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress is an Allegory.

- 570.—8. An ANTITHESIS is the contrast or opposition between two objects, two actions, or two qualities, that their difference may be rendered more apparent; thus, We contrast the savageness of the tiger with the meckness of the lamb; the cruelty of Nero with the forbearance of Titus. This figure is mostly employed in the delineation of characters, particularly in biography, history, and satire. The following is an instance:—"He can bribe, but he cannot seduce; he can buy, but he cannot gain; he can lie, but he cannot deceive."
- 571. Caution.—When objects are compared or contrasted, the resemblance of the opposition must be denoted, not only by the words, but by the structure of the sentence.
 - a. Thus, "A friend eraggerales a man's virtues, au enemy his crimes."

Here the actors and objects are contrasted; the verb exaggerates, being common to both, is expressed in the first clause and understood in the second.

- b. "Between same and true honour a distinction is to be made. The former is a blind and noisy applause; the latter is an internal and more ellent homage."
- c. A continued succession of antifheres must be avoided, otherwise our expressions will appear too studied and laboured, conveying an impression that freater attention has been paid to the manner of saying a thing than to the thing itself. (See 683.)

- 572.—9. a. An Allusion is a figure by which some word or phrase in a sentence recalls to our mind, either some well-known fact in history, or fable in mythology, or the sentiments of some distinguished writer.—In all allusions, the subject referred to should be readily perceived, otherwise a deeper shade will be cast on those objects which were intended, by this means, to be illuminated.
- b. "A writer in the Edinburgh Review," to quote the words of Professor Newman, "thus remarks on the poetry of Milton:—
- ""Change the structure of the sentence, substitute one synonym for nnother, and the whole effect is destroyed. The spell loses its power; and he who should then hope to conjure with it, would find himself as much mistaken as Cassim, in the Arabian tale, when he cried "Open Wheat," "Open Barley," to the door which obeyed no sound hat "Open Sesame.""

Here the nilneion is to one of the popular tales of the day, and hence it is pleasing and easily understood.

LESSON 37 .- Exercise 87 .- Page 120.

- 573.—10. An Hyper'döle is a figure which represents things as greater or less, better or neorse, than they are in reality; thus David, speaking of Saul and Jonathan, says, "They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions."
- 171. a. Hyperbolical language is frequently the effect of passion; for the passions, whether love, lerror, amazement, indignation, anger, or grief, throw the mind into confusion, and exaggerate their objects. Hence, hyperboles generally appear in tragedy during the storms of passion, or in the higher kinds of poetry and ordery.
- b. Caution.—An hyperbole should never be used in prose in the description of anything ordinary or familiar; and when used on other occasions, it should be expressed as briefly as possible. In instances, however, of humour and drollery, hyperboles are frequently introduced purposely to magnify or degrade the subject. In 17-dry, niso, a greater latitude may be allowed than in prose, but even here, we should be on our guard lest the figure degenerate into bombast.
- 575.—11. a. Inoxy is a figure in which we utter the very recerse of what we intend should be understood, with a view to add force and pungency to our observations. Thus, when we style a thief, "A mighty honest fellow indeed," we speak ironically. The real sentiments of the speaker are evinced by the secring accent, the air, the catravagance of the praise, contrasted with the well-known character of the person or thing addressed.
- b. This figure is generally employed in entirizing the vices and follies of mankind; for those individuals on whose minds the soundest arguments would have no effort, are not proof against the poignancy of wit and raillery. We therefore find that the mest serious persons have, on proper occasions, had recourse to the use of this figure. Thus the prophet Elljah succincily challenges the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity in these words,—"Cry alond: for he is a gol; either he is talking, or he is parsaing, or he is on a journey, or peradrenture he sleepsth, and must be awaked."—I Kings xviii. 27.
- 576.—12. Sarcasm. a kind of irony, is a keen satirical expression, intended to insult and mortify a person; thus the Jews,

when they derided Christ, insultingly said, "He saved others; Himself He cannot save."

- 577.—13. Paralepsis or Omission, is a figure by which we pretend to omit what we are really desirous of enforcing; as, "Your idleness, not to mention your impertinence and dishonesty, disqualifies you for the situation."
- 578.—14. An Interrogation is used literally to ask a question, but figuratively it is employed, when the passions are greatly moved, to affirm or deny more strongly. Thus, "The Lord is not a man, that He should lie; neither the son of man, that He should repent; hath He said, and shall He not do it? or hath He spoken, and shall He not make it good?"
- 579.—15. EXCLAMATION is used to express agitated feeling, admiration, wonder, surprise, anger, joy, grief, &c.; thus, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God! how unsearchable are His judgments, and His ways past finding out!"
- 580.—16. Vision or IMAGERY is a figure used only in animated and dignified compositions, when, instead of relating something that is past or future, we employ the *present* tense, and describe it as actually passing before our eyes.

Thus Cicero, in his fourth oration against Catiline, says, "I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens, lying unburied in the midst of their ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while, with a savage joy, he is triumphing in your miseries."

- 581.—17. a. CLIMAX is a figure in which the sense rises, by successive steps, to what is more and more important, or descends to what is more and more minute; as, "There is no enjoyment of property without government; no government without a magistrate; no magistrate without obedience; and no obedience where every one acts as he pleases."
 - b. Climax is the same as Amplification, Enumeration, or Gradation.
- c. A writer or speaker who, by force of argument, has established his principal point, may sometimes introduce this figure with advantage at the close of his discourse.
- 582.—18. The Anticlimax, or the opposite of Climax, is sometimes introduced to diminish great objects, and render such as are diminutive even more so.
- 583. a. In addition to the preceding Figures of Speech, there are others: such as the *Litôtes*, which affirms more strongly by

denying the contrary; the Parallelism, or the similar construction of the members of a sentence; the Catachresis, or abuse of words, in which the words are wrested from their proper meaning—as, a beautiful voice, a sweet sound.

- b. A Euphemism is the softening of an offensive or harsh expression; thus, in speaking of a miser, instead of saying "he has a mean-spirited disposition," we can say, "he has a narrow or contracted soul." (See 669.)
 - 584. Directions in the Application of Figurative Language.
- 1. Carefully study the preceding Lessons in consecutive order, and work the Exercises adapted to the same in the volume of Exercises, pp. 119 to 128.
- 2. In studying the Poets, Orators, and Essayists in our language, notice on what occasion figurative expressions are employed, and what impression is, by that means, made on your mind. Critically analyze each figure, that you may understand to what extent it has contributed to the embellishment of the author's sentiments. The most striking of these figures should be lodged in your memory and be made the topic of conversation with some intelligent friend; or, at least, entered and duly classified in some memorandum-book reserved for that purpose. Simply marking them in the margin of the author, except as subsidiary to the memory, will be found insufficient.
- 3. In your own composition be very sparing, for a time, in the use of Figurative Language, till extensive reading and careful critical practice shall have taught you on what occasions, and to what extent, this most difficult kind of language can with advantage be employed.

VERBAL CRITICISM.

LESSON 88.—Exercise 88.—Page 129.

- 585. VERBAL CRITICISM is the art of judging, by determinate principles, of the correctness or incorrectness of a writer's appression, both with regard to the choice and arrangement of his words, and the structure of his sentences.
- 586. LITERARY CRITICISM extends to the examination both of thought and taste, as well as expression; and depends on the application of extensive knowledge, sound judgment, and correct taste, in estimating how far a writer adheres to truth and nature in his delineations. The subsequent Rules and observations will be principally restricted to the former of these branches—namely, verbal criticism.
- 587. Verbal Criticism may be considered under the two following heads:-
 - I. The Nature and Laws of Language.
 - IL Style.

L-NATURE AND LAWS OF LANGUAGE.

- 588. Language is the utterance of intelligible sounds, and forms the medium by which the mind communicates its thoughts. It is either articulate or inarticulate. The former is confined to man, the latter is common to other animals as well as to man.
- 589. Inarticulate language consists of those instinctive sounds or cries by which animals express their sensations and desires.

Thus, the neighing of the horse, the barking of the dog, the chirping of fowls, &c., are sounds perfectly understood by the animals uttering them.—Man, also, has a natural language intelligible to the whole of the human race. This, however, is extremely defective, being confined entirely to the general expressions of joy, grief, fear, and the other passions or enotions of the mind; it is, therefore, wholly inadequate to the purposes of rational intercourse, and the infinitely diversified ideas of an intelligent being. Hence the necessity of articulate language.

590. Articulate language is that system of expression which

is composed of simple sounds, variously modified by the organs of speech, and combined into words as signs of our ideas.

The organs of speech are the lips, the teeth, the tongue, the palate, the throat, and the nose.

- 591. a. Words, though closely connected by frequent use with the things signified, have no natural affinity with them. Thus, the word fire might have denominated the substance which we call ice, and the word ice might have signified fire, &c. It is, therefore, custom only, or the tacit consent of a people, that affixes to certain things a certain word or sound by which it may be known.
- b. There are many words, it is true, the sounds of which are imitations of the noise produced by the things signified. Thus, one wind is said to whistle, another to roar, a serpent to his, a fly to burk &c. But instances of this kind are only few in number. Words, therefore, may be considered principally as symbols, and not as imitations; as arbitrary or instituted, and not as natural signs of ideas. The correct of this mode of considering the nature of speech in general, will be more apparent if we attend to the manner by which children are taught a language. Suppose a book is held out to a child for the first time, an impression continues, suppose farther that the sound book is distinctly uttered; he will then have an impression or idea of the sound conveyed through the sense of hearing, which will be rendered more distinct if he himself be taught to enunciate it. The two ideas, namely, that of the edged, and that of the tound, will then, if long continued, or often repeated, coalesse in his mind, and become so strongly connected, that the idea of the object will suggest that of the sound look; and, on the other hand, the sound will recall the idea of the object.—The principle on which this coalition is founded, is a law of the human mind, known under the name of association of ideas; and the procress of the learner in consecting other ideas with other sounds is only a repetition of the operation, till the whole language is acquired.
- 592. a. THE ORIGIN OF LANGUAGE.—We learn from the Scriptures that Adam named all creatures, and hence we naturally infer that language must have been the gift of Heaven.
- b. Indeed, what can be more rational, as well as more probable, than to suppose that He, who formed the organs of man, should at first instruct him in the proper nee of them? Not, however, that we suppose the languages of our first parents was as copious as most modern languages, or that the identical language which they used is now in existence. Many of the primitive radical words may and probably do exist in various languages, but observation trackes us that languages must improve and undergo considerable changes as knowledge increases, and be subject to continual alterations, from other causes incident to men in reciety, *
- 593. a. Articulate language is either oral or written. Oral language is the expression of our ideas by intelligible sounds or

[•] Horne Tooke's assertion, that language is of human invention, is, like some other of his assertions, very unit-mail is. "This method of referring words," says he, "immediately to God as their framer, is a short cut to escape inputing and explanation. It saves the philosopher much trouble, but haves mankind in much hymerance, and leads to great error." But what ignorance, we would ask, can the supposed Buries origin of language perpetuate manage mankind? or how can it had to great error? Unless we can accreain the true origin of language, we are just where we were as to ignorance or error, whether we assume a Divine or a human origin.

words. Written language is the representation of significant sounds by letters or characters.

b. Oral language, we have reason to suppose, continued long to be the only medium by which knowledge could be imparted, or social intercourse maintained. But, in the progress of knowledge, various methods, such as hieroglyphics, pictures, &c. were devised for attaining a more permanent and extensive vehicle of thought. At length, words were reduced to their simple articulate sounds, and marks or letters were adopted to denote those sounds. Hence, letters are marks for certain sounds; and by a combination of these elementary marks or letters, all words, or signs of thought, are made visible in writing, and again transferred from the eye to the mind.—By oral language we communicate our thoughts only to those that are present; but by means of written language, we can convey them to the most distant regions, as well as to future generations.

Of the Usage which constitutes the Law of Language.

- 594. a. UTILITY OF GRAMMAR.—As language is composed of arbitrary words derived from various sources, and subject to inumerous modifications and combinations, the necessity of uniformity of expression, in order to be accurately understood, would naturally suggest itself to every reflecting mind. Hence, we find among the Greeks and Romans, as among other nations, attention was early paid to a systematic arrangement of those modes of expression which seemed best calculated to convey the meaning intended. The system which professes to unfold and illustrate the rules and principles by which uniformity or accuracy of expression is secured is called Grammar. Those principles which are applicable to all languages constitute what is termed Universal Grammar, while those which are confined to any one Language are denominated Particular Grammar.
 - b. No Grammarian can, of his own authority, alter any mode of expression, or assign to a word a signification different from that which has been allotted to it by established usage. He is properly the compiler and syntemizer of laws already existing, and not the promulgator of new laws of his own framing. He may, indeed, recommend this or that mode of expression, as more agreeable to analogy, but it must remain with the public whether or not his edvice be adopted. His business is to observe the agreement or disagreement of words, the similarity or dissimilarity between different forms of expression; to reduce those that are similar under the same class, and, by a careful induction of particulars, to establish general propositions. By these means, he greatly facilitates the study of the language to strangers, renders natives more perfect in the knowledge of it, and, at least, gives greater stability, if not a permanency to custom.
 - 595. A Rule, in Grammar, is an established mode or form to which a large number of particular things is subject, either in inflection, concord, position, &c.; thus, it is a rule, in English, that the plural of nouns should be formed by adding s to the singular—as book, books.
 - 596. a. An Exception from a rule is a deviation from the mode observed by the larger collection; thus, the plural of beau is formed by adding x instead of s, as beaux: because it is thus formed in French, from which language it is derived.

- b. The exception to a rule arises, either because the word or phrase thus used has been derived from another language, or because custom has assigned that mode; in either case, however, it now forms a fau of the language, and must be observed as much as the rule itself.
- 597. Both the rules and exceptions of a language must have obtained the sanction of established, or, as it is generally denominated, good usage; and this usage must be reputable, national, and present.
- 598. The Usage which gives law to language must, in the first place, be Reputable.

By reputable usage is meant that mode of expression which has been adopted by Authors, distinguished for combining extensive knowledge with the talent for communicating it.

- 500, a. The conversation of men of rank and eminence will certainly have some influence on language. And, in what concerns merely the presunciation, it is the only rule to which we can refer the matter in every doubtful case; but in what concerns the words themselves, or their contruction and application, it is of importance to have some certain, start, and rell-tnorn random to which we can refer, a random to which everyone has access to canvace and examine; and this can be no other than authors of represent Accordingly, we find that these are, by universal consent, in actual possession of this authority, and to this tribunal, when any doubt arises, the appeal is always made.—The attempt of Welker to make conversation the sole handard of correctness is most injudicious and unsafe, for the reasons just assigned.
- b. By Authors of Reputation or Standard Authors, we mean those who combine extensive knowledge with the talent for communicating it, who have weighed well the propriety of their words and the structure of their sentences. A writer may be valued for the profundity of his knowledge, but if he is deficient in communicating it, he is of no extherity with rapper to language. The estimation in which a writer is held by the public must always decide to what class he belongs, or to what eminence he has stialned. Some persons, for instance, may prefer, as a poet, Parnel to Milion, but no one will dispute the superior fame of the latter to that of the former.
- c. Nor is it upon the authority of a few reputable writers that any mode of construction can be deemed properly established. In order to become reputable construction can be deemed properly established. In order to become reputable usage, it must have received the sanction of many, if not of the myority of writers of this class. The Rule is applicable also both to verbal Critics and Grammarians.* Though the epinions of such must, formed, as they must be, from a carrial investigation of the general principles of a language, will have, and explict to have, greater weight than those of any other individuals; yet the single anthority of any Critic or Grammarian, however distinguished be may be, is not of itself sufficient to establish any mode which he may recommend, or to reject what he deprecates. He may point out the analogy of the one and the cronscenses of the other, and his arguments may be founded to truth; but it must depend upon the procentity of other writers whether or not his epinions shall be adopted. It is, however, to be presumed, that since our language is now extensively caltivated, the deductions of the learned and judicleus critic or grammarian will receive greater attention than formerly, and angenetics and irregularities will. receive presier attention than formerly, and anomalies and irregularities will, ectarquently, become much fewer.
- 000. This Usage must, in the second place, be National, -not confined to this or that province, but must form the language of the nation, and be everywhere intelligible.

It must be observed, that the office of the Grammarian and that of the Ordile, though frequently combined, are yet distinct. The Grammarian is properly the compiler of the Lang of the language, and the Verlad Ordicis he who negled the almer that are creeping in.

601. a. In the third place, this Usage must be Present.

- b. Many words formerly in use and occurring in the authorized version of the Bible, in Shakspeare's plays, in Bacon's Essays, and in other writings of that period, from being less suitable than others, are now obsolete, that is, have ceased to be employed by good modern writers. In determining, therefore, what words are to be considered obsolete, regard must be had to the species of composition and to the nature of the subject. A greater latitude is allowed to Poetry than to Pross. In Poetry, any word which cannot plead the authority of Millon, or some standard contemporary poet, may be justly regarded as obsolete. In Pross (except in burlevie, or in passages of ancient story, or when the subject is on some art or science) no word should be employed which has ceased to be used by good writers for the last century. This remark is applicable not only to inappropriate words, but to awkward, uncouth declensions and combinations of words. (See 202 to 207.)
- 602. a. The usages of written rather than of oral language, determine the Rules of Grammar, because the former exhibit not only present but national and reputable usage.
- b. Another reason for basing the Rules of Grammar on the usages of written rather than of oral language is, that oral language is not generally uttered with sufficient care to avoid mistakes; but written language requires greater caution in the choice and accuracy of expression, that the meaning of the writer may be distinctly conveyed.

CANONS OF CRITICISM.

LESSON 89.—Exercise 89.—Page 129.

603. As Good Usage is not always uniform in its decisions, unquestionable authorities being found for different modes of expression, it has been thought desirable to draw up certain Canons or Rules of Criticism, by which the student will be enabled to decide to which mode of expression the preference is due. The subjoined Canons, proposed by Dr. Campbell, in his "Philosophy of Rhetoric," have received the approbation of every judicious writer on this subject:—

1. Canons to determine the Choice of Words.

- 604. Canon 1.—a. When usage is divided as to any particular words or phrases, and when one of the expressions is susceptible of a different meaning, while the other admits of only one signification, the expression which is strictly univocal should be preferred; thus, "To speak contemptuously of a person," is better than "to speak contemptibly," as the latter term signifies that the manner of speaking deserved contempt.
- b. For this reason, aught, signifying "anything," is better than ought, denoting duty; searcely, as no adverb, is better than scarce; by consequence is preferable to of consequence, which signifies also "of importance."

The term primitive, as equivalent to original, is preferable to primary. The latter is synonymous with principal, and is opposed to eccondary; the former is equivalent to original, and is opposed to derivative or acquired.

605. Canon 2.—a. In doubtful cases analogy should be regarded; thus, contemporary is better than cotemporary, con

being used before a consonant, and co before a vowel—as, concomitant, co-eval.

- b. For a similar reason, "he needs," "he dares," "whether he will or not," are preferable to "he need," "he dare," "whether he will or no." (See 162. c, 183. d, 393. d.)
- 600. Canon 3.—When expressions are in other respects equal, that should be preferred which is the shortest and most agreeable to the ear.
- 607. Canon 4.—When none of the preceding Rules are applicable, regard should be had to simplicity. On this ground, accept, approve, admit, are preferable to accept of, approve of, admit of.

2. Canons to determine the Disuse or Rejection of Words and

- 608. a. Though no expression or mode of speech, which is not sanctioned by usage, can be justified, we must not, hence, suppose that every phraseology sanctioned by usage is to be retained. In such cases, custom may be properly checked by Criticism, the province of which is, not only to remonstrate against the introduction of any word or phraseology, which may be either unnecessary or contrary to analogy, but also to exclude whatever is reprehensible, though in general use.
- b. It is by the exercise of this prerogative of criticien, that languages are gradually refined and improved, which would otherwise either become stationary or hasten to decline. In exercising this nuthority, Criticism cannot pretend instantly to degrade any phraseology, which she may deem objectionable; but she may, by repeated remonstrances, gradually cancel it. Her decisions in such cases, may be properly regulated by the following Canons, as delivered by the same author. (See 599. c.)
- 609. Canon 1.—a. All words and phrases particularly harsh, and not absolutely necessary, should be dismissed; as, unsuccessfulness, wrongheadedness.
- b. A word or plurase is considered necessary, when there are no synonymous words, in the event of a dismission, to supply its place, or no way of conveying properly the same idea without the aid of circumfocution.
- 610. The following Criteria will enable the student to determine what words are considered objectionable:—
- a. Criterion 1. Terms composed of words already compounded, the several parts of which are not easily united; such as, chamefaced-new, dis-interest-ed-new.
- b. Criterion 2. When a word is so formed and accomted as to render it of difficult utterance; such as, questionless, primarily, peremptorily.
- c. Criterion 3. A short or unaccented syllable regented at the end of a word is always disagreeable, and should therefore be avoided; as, in holly, silling. (See 420. b.)
- 611. Canon 2.—When the Etymology plainly points to a different signification from what the word bears, propriety and

simplicity require its dismission. Thus, the word beholden taken for obliged, and the verb to unloose for to loose or untie, should be rejected.

For the same reason, annul and disannul ought not to be considered synonymous.

- 612. Canon 3.—a. When words become obsolete, or are never used except in particular phrases, they should be rejected, as they give the style an air of vulgarity, while their general disuse renders them obscure.
- b. Of these, lief, dint, whit, moot, pro and con., furnish examples; as, "I had as lief go;" "by dint of argument;" "a moot point;" "It was argued pro and con." These phraseologies are never admitted into good writing. Thomson, in his "Castle of Indolence," has imitated the antique style of Spenser, and introduced many words now obsolete.
- 613. Canon 4.—All words and phrases which, analyzed grammatically, include a solecism, should be dismissed; as, "I had rather go," for "I would rather go," or, "I'd rather go." (See 400. c.)
- 614. Canon 5.—All expressions which, according to the established Rules of the Language, either, 1, have no meaning, or, 2, involve a contradiction, or, 3, according to the fair construction of the words, convey a meaning different from the intention of the speaker, should be dismissed.
- 1. Of expressions which have little or no meaning, the following are examples: "Currying facour;"—"Having a month's mind for a thing." Such expressions ought always to be avoided.
- 2. Of expressions involving a contradiction, the following will serve as an example: "There were four ladies in the company, every one prettier than another." This is impossible.
- 3. The following expressions convey a meaning different from the intention of the speaker: "He sings a good song." This phrase, as it is at present constructed, implies that the song is good; but the speaker meant to say, "He sings well." In the same manner, when it is said, "This is the best part he acts, "the sentence, according to the strict interpretation of the words, expresses an opinion, not of the manner of his acting, but of the part or character which he acts. It should therefore be, "He acts this part better than any other." For a similar reason, the following sentence is incorrect: "Who is learning you geography?" instead of, "Who is learning you geography?" (See 445.)

IL-STYLE.

LESSON 90 -- Exercise 90 -- Page 130.

- 615. Sixile is the peculiar manner of expression which we adopt to convey our ideas to others. This manner is always more or less influenced by the moral and intellectual character of a writer, and by his peculiar temperament, education, and employment. Certain qualities will, therefore, be peculiar to the individual, while others will be possessed in common with all writers. Thus, whether the style be concise or diffuse, plain or ornamental, must depend on the taste and ability of an author, but perspiculty of expression is a quality essential in all.
- 616. The principal qualities of a good Style are Perspicuity and Energy, and, next in importance, Harmony.

PERSPICUITY OF EXPRESSION.

- 617. a. Perspiculty of Expression implies the use of such words and phrases, and such an arrangement of them, as shall convey our ideas with clearness, accuracy, and precision.
- b. Perspicuity of Expression is not at all concerned about the correctness of our sentiments or the conclusiveness of our reasonings. Accuracy in these respects must depend on the application of good sense, careful investigation, and logical skill. The rules of Perspicuity enable us to convey our meaning, whatever that may be, with such distinctness and certainty, as cannot be misunderstood by an ordinary mind.
- 618. a. Though Perspicuity is an essential, yet, remarks Dr. Whately, it is a relative quality, and, consequently, cannot properly be asserted of any work without a toot reference to the class of readers or bearers for which it is designed. The style which is adapted to the learned may be quite unsuited to the lilliterate. We must, therefore, take into consideration the degree and had of attention which the individuals whom we are adirecting have been accustomed to or are littly to bestow. Some hearers or readers, for instance, will be found slow of apprehension indeed, but capable of understanding what is very copiously and gradually explained to them; while others, on the contrary, who are much quicker in perceiving the sense of what is expressed in a short compass, are incapable of long attention, and are not only wearied, but absolutely bewildered, by a diffuse Style.
- b. It is not, however, to be understood, because extreme conciseness is ill-salted to heaves or readers whose intellectual powers and caltivation are but small, that a prolin style is therefore less minped to each minds. Both extremed are, in general, improper. Most of these who result comprehend the meaning, when briefly expressed, and many of these who could not do so, are likely to be leavillered by too great an expansion; and, being unable to maintain a steady attention to what is said, they torput part of what they have beard or read before the sense is complete. To avoid the disadvantages both of concisences

and prolixity, it will frequently be necessary to employ Repetition; that is, to repeat the same sentiment and argument in many different forms of expression, each in itself brief, but all together affording such an expansion of the sense to be conveyed, and so detaining the mind upon it, as the case may require. Care must, of course, be taken that the repetition be not too glaringly apparent; the variation must not consist in the mere use of synonymous words; but what has been expressed in appropriate terms may be repeated in metaphorical; the antecedent and consequent of an argument, or the parts of an antithesis, may be transposed; or the several different points that have been enumerated, may be presented in a varied order, &c.

- 619. Perspicuity refers, 1st, to the right use of Words and Phrases; 2ndly, to the Structure of Sentences.
- 620. Perspicuity in the use of Words and Phrases requires three things; namely—1. Purity, 2. Propriety, 3. Precision.

WORDS AND PHRASES.

Purity.

- 621. PURITY OF LANGUAGE consists in the use of such words and constructions only as are sanctioned by the best modern usage. The two violations of Purity are, 1, Barbarism, and 2, Solecism.—Barbarism is the use of, 1, Foreign, 2, Learned, 3, Obsolete, and 4, Newly-coined words.—Solecism is the violation of some grammatical rule or idiom.
- 622.—1. Barbarism.—Rule 1.—a. Avoid using modern Forcign words or phrases, except such as are absolutely necessary to convey new ideas, or describe new scenes and objects which cannot be expressed by established English words. So copious, however, is our language, that there are few objects which cannot be described by means of English words.
- b. The following are a few of the numerous foreign words which disfigure the pages of some of our periodicals, all of which could be better expressed in English:—

À propos Amour propre Badinage	 ented with. a jolly sort of man. rabble. an idle rumour. of former days. 	Débris	. appearance, breakfast, the best part. riot, disturbance, persons employed, weariness, a thing realized, artlessness,
Ci-devant Cortège	. of former days.	Naivelé Précis	. artlessness.

- c. Purism is a term frequently used to imply the rejection of all foreign phrases from our compositions.
- d. The persons most addicted to use foreign words are—1. Young continental tourists who wish to display a little of their acquired knowledge; 2. anthors of common novels who are not conversant with their own language; and 3. writers in the lower class periodicals.—The higher class productions, whether regular

treatises or periodicals, never admit these words, except on very special occusions. When foreign words are used in books, they are generally printed in *Relies*.

- c. Sometimes Latin and Foreign words are purposely introduced to confine the meaning to certain persons, or to conceal some indelicate idea which the writer is ashamed to translate.
- f. The following, abridged from Dr. Campbell's "Phil. of Rhet.," are conclusive Reasons for avoiding the use of Foreign words:—
- 1. These foreign words, being so different from ours both in Orthography and Pronunciation, constitute so many anomalies which, by loading the Grammatical Rules with exceptions, corrupt the simplicity and regularity of our language.
- 2. By admitting these words, others of native growth, and perhaps more expressive, are displaced, our language is rendered continually unsettled, and the productions of even good writers are soon obsolete.
- 3. Should a writer not be followed in the use of these words, they will appear as so many permanent faults, indicating either the writer's extreme negligence, or bad taste, or ignorance of his own language.
- 623. Rule 2.—a. In General Literature, Latin and Greek words and phrases should be avoided; except such as have already obtained the sanction of good usage, or are rendered necessary in the description of some invention or discovery.—In Science and Art, however, many terms, formed from Latin and Greek primitives, have been recently introduced, as they have been found more expressive than the terms which they have displaced.
- b. The following are a few examples of Latin words which occur in certain writings. For additional, see the Atridgment of the Gram, p. 100.

Ab initio, from the beginning.
A forth ri, with stronger reason.
A print, from case to effect.
A porteriori, from effect to cause.
At rathrem, according to the value.
Cateria paribus, other things leing equal.
De jure, in right, in law.
De nero, anew, over again.
De nero, anew, over again.

Exempli gratid, (e.g.) for example.

Exenteded, from the chair, by autho-Expart, on one sile. [rity. In limite, at the cated. In two, entirely. Ye plus alira, the atmost limit. Per re, by itself, alone. Pro trapter, for the time. Quandam, formerly. Sine die, without fixing a day. [le. Sine qud non, without which it cannot Verteum, word for word.

624. Rule 3.—a. Obsolete words and constructions must be avoided. Many words formerly used have ceased to be employed by good writers. Some of these are now quite unintelligible: others are used merely by a few poets in imitation of older writers.

t. Of words, the following are a few, -Beloof, telest, escalate, thiren, prisped, east, factory, or in, i.e., Of contractions, -It grievels me, for, I am grievel; I will not; Quit his.

c. Several words and constructions occur in the authorized translation of the Bible which were current 800 years ago, but are now obsolete; of these the following are a few:—

Of Words:-

Prevent, means, Go before, in Psalm xxi. 3; now it means, to stop, hinder.

Temp!, to try, prove, in Gen. xxii. 1; now, to solicit to evil.

Tale, a reckoning, in Exod. v. 8; now, a narrative.

Eminent, hanging over, in Ezek. xvil. 22; now, distinguished.

Offend, to cause to err, in Matt. xvii. 8; now, to displease, injure.

Entreat, to use, handle, in Matt. xxii. 6; now, to pray for, to expostulate with.

Of Phrases -

Matt. vi. 9.—Our Father which; for, who.
Matt. xx. 14.—That thine is; for, that which is thine.
Matt. xx. 31.—The multitude rebuked them because; for, that.
Matt. xxvil. 21.—Whether of the twain; for, which of the two.
John xix. 18.—On either side; for, on cach side one.
Acts xxviii. 13.—Fetched a compass; for, coasted round.
(See Booker's Obsolete Scripture Words.)

- 625. Rule 4.—a. Newly-coined Words must be avoided; such as, encumberment for encumbrance; connexity for connection; marturized for martured.
- b. Abbreviations of polysyllables, formed by lopping off all the syllables except the first, or the first and second, must be avoided; such as hyp. for hypochondriac, rep. for reputation, penult. for penultimate, extra. for extraordinary, hyper. and incog. for hypercritic and incognito.
- c. The introduction of new words is allowable only, as Mr. Marsh properly observes, "whenever a people by emigration or some great political change are brought into contact with new objects, new circumstances, and new dutics." In the use of such words, the English Analogy must be observed, either in the derivation or composition of them.
- 626. a.—2. Solecish.—Rule 5.—a. All violations either of Syntax or of the English Idiom in general must be avoided; as, "You was," for "you were;" "I want a tong," for "a pair of tongs;" "Give attendance to reading," for "attention to."
- b. The best General Rule to be observed with regard to Purity is—That the words employed should be easy and familiar, such as are used by sensible unaffected men in good conversation. Indeed, a plain native style is the most intelligible to all persons, and, by a proper management of words, can be made much more expressive than that which is formed by the introduction of foreign words.

Propriety.

LESSONS 91. a. & b.—Exercises 91. a. & b.—Page 131.

thing its proper name; that is, using only such words and phrases as the best usage has appropriated to the ideas intended to be expressed by them. This rule is of universal application. "Still" (as observed by Mr. Marsh), "in the choice of words,

writers are frequently guided not merely by their knowledge of a subject, but by their temperament. Thus, a man of moderate passions will employ few epithets, and those of mild signification; while one of warm passions will use many intensives, and words of strong and stirring meaning. Again, a man accustomed to careful analysis will be particular in his choice of words, while a loose thinker will employ the same expression to denote various shades of meaning." (March's Lect.)

- 628. Rule 1.—Avoid low or rulgar words, contractions, or phrases.
 - a. Words: such as, topsy-turvy, hurly-burly, pell-mell, lief, dint, whit, &c.
 - b. Contractions: such as, ien't, ar'n't, haven't, for is not, are not, have not
 - c. Phrases: to get into a sumpe, currying favour, dancing attendance, &c.
- $^{\circ}$ d. Stang words, which tend to debase the morality as well as the speech of a nation.
- c. Instead of employing a low word, employ a synonymous one; or, when a better cannot be found, remodel the sentence altogether.
- f. The following are a few instances in which approved expressions may be substituted for these that are common:—

Common expressions. Approved.
to braz,
their betters,
broke his word,
sand upon security, insist upon security.
with half an eye,
carily.

Common expressions. Approved, pliched upon, chosen, to bold long, to continue long, extol, to small out motives, discover or discorn, fell to work, began.

629. Rule 2.—Avoid Provincialisms.

Every county either has some words peculiar to itself, or attaches some meaning to a word which is different from the general acceptation. In some parts, for instance, will is impropely used for shall, and shall for will. A writer, therefore, should carefully exclude all provincialisms, and strictly adhere to the language used by the best authors.

- 630. Rule 3.—a. In works intended for general readers, avoid introducing technical terms; as they form the peculiar dialect only of a particular class.
- b. Thus, to inform these who do not understand sen-phrases, that "We include to the larboard, and stood of, to sen," would be expressing ourselves obscurely.—

 There is an a certain phraselegy peculiar to fissif, and these should be confined to their proper subjects. In writing works strictly professional, the proper rule is, to employ such technical terms as castom has already established, defining, mollifying, or extending them as the occasion may require.
- 631. Rule 4.—a. In prose composition, exclude words that are purely poetical; such as. morn, eve, plaint, lone, what time, &c.
- A. In every language which is furnished with two distinct vecabularies, one adapted to prose, and the other to portry, a mixture of both in the same composition betrays, in the author, either calpuble necligance, or extreme want of tasts. "To see," as Dr. Cromble, in his "Gramasum," properly remarks, "the language of 'Para lies best," and the distributed 'The Speciator,' if unded together, either in the narrative of the historian, or in the prave discussion of the philisaphy, would excite the m-Bobby of a common resident and its a person of two and discussions, such a consequence commander of pro-cland position for task of the policy could not fail to produce discussion of the process."

- c. Not only should all words and phrases, peculiarly belonging to poetry, be excluded from prose, but likewise all those modes of expression, which are adapted and generally appropriated to one species of prose, should be repudiated in every other. Dialogue, history, oratory, episiolary correspondence, and philosophical discussion have, in general, a separate and distinctive style suited to the character of each. To mix, therefore, two or more of these different styles in the same composition, is improper.
- 632. Rule 5.—a. In the same sentence avoid using the same word either too frequently, or in different senses. Thus, "Gregory favoured the undertaking, because the manager, in countenance, favoured his friend;" should be "resembled his friend."
- b. One great source of obscurity is the frequent repetition of pronouns, when we have occasion to refer to different persons. Thus, in the following sentence, "Lisias promised his father never to abandon his friends," the second his is ambiguous; it may refer either to his own friends, or to his father's. On the first supposition, say, "Lisias, speaking of his friends, promised his father never to abandon them." On the second supposition, say, "Lisias, speaking of his father's friends, promised his father never to abandon them." Again, "One may have an air which proceeds from a just sufficiency and knowledge of the matter before him, which may naturally produce some motions of his head and body, which might become the bench better than the bar." This sontence will be better rendered thus: "One may have an air which proceeds from a just sufficiency and knowledge of thematter before him, and these may produce such motions of his head and body as become the bench better than the bar." From these remarks, we see that the same pronoun should refer to the same person or object, and the same relative should refer to the same antecedent throughout the sentence. (See 209.)
- 633. Rule 6.—a. Avoid equivocal words; that is, never employ those words which may be susceptible of a sense different from the sense you intend to be conveyed.
- Thus, "A little after the Reformation of Luther," should be, "the Reformation train by Luther;" "I will have mercy and not sacrifice," should be, "I prefer mercy to sacrifice," or, "I require mercy and not sacrifice."—"They were both more ancient among the Persians than Zoroaster or Zerdusht." As only one person is here intended, the meaning would be better conveyed thus: "They were both more ancient among the Persians than Zoroaster, or, as he is sometimes called, Zerdusht."—"He aimed at nothing less than the crown," may denote either that, "Nothing was less aimed at by him than the crown," or, "Nothing inferior to the crown would satisfy his ambition." "He is one of the oldest inmales," may mean either oldest in age, or the longest in residence.
- L. As the plural of some words conveys a different meaning from the singular, care must be taken to render the expression definite; thus, "His nanner was hareb;" "His manners are rough." "One lawyer's practice may be extensive; another practices may not be honourable." (See 83. c.)
- 2. 91. b.—634. Rule 7.—Words conveying incongruous or inconsistent ideas, must, in serious and grave compositions, be avoided. In Puns, Epigrams, and humorous writing, unexpected and ludicrous comparisons are not only allowable, but form a leading characteristic.
- G35. Of the various species of unintelligible writing, Dr. Campbell, in his "Philosophy of Rhetoric," notices the following:—
- a. The First species arises from Confusion of Thought. There is a sort of half-formed thoughts, which we find some writers impatient to give to the world, before the subject is fully understood by themselves. Now, if a writer himself perceives confusedly and imperfectly the sentiments he would communicate, there is every probability that the reader will not perceive them at all. The following

is an example of this kind of writing:—"And as to a well-taught mind, when you've said a haughty and proud man, you have spoke a narrow conception, little spirit, and despicable carriage." Perhaps, if the author had any manning, it might be this: "When you have called a man proud and haughty, you have ascribed to him a narrow conception, mean spirit, and despicable carriage.

- b. The Second species arises from Affectation of Excellence. In this kind of writing, there is always something figurative; but the figures are remote; things that are heterogeneous being introduced, and producing what is usually termed bombat. "This temper of soul," says "The Gaardian," speaking of meekness and humility, "keeps our understanding tight about us." Whether the author had any meaning in this expression, or what it was, is not easy to be determined; but scarcely could anything more incongruous, in the way of metaphor, have been imagined. The understanding is made a girdle to cur other mental faculties, for the fastening of which girdle, meckness and humility serve as a buckle.
- Hyperbolical language also, when carried to extravagance, generally produces the same effect as the marvellons, exciting ridicule, if not disgust, instead of admiration.
- 636. Rule 8.—a. Let every word and phrase be strictly adapted to the ideas intended to be conveyed; thus, "The observation of the Sabbath is a duty incumbent on Christians," should be, "The observance," &c.

b. Avoid using one word for another: thus.

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1. Affect, to influence . . . . for . . Effect, to accomplish.
                                        Immeried, plunged into, deeply en-
2. Amerced, fined. . . . . . for .
                                         ಟಾವಿಯ್
3. Arocation, a calling aside . . . for . . Vocation, a trade, business.
                                        Oun, to possess, have a right over; as, "He ours some property."
4. Bilong, to be the property of . for .
6. Composure, a scaled state . . for . . Composition, a written production.
7. Discipline, a course of training . for . . Trial, proof of proficiency.
S. Disposition, moral character . . for . . Disposal, arrangement.
9. Emerge, to come forth from . . for . . Immerge, to plunge into.
10. Eminent, distinguished . . . for . . Imminent, threatening.
11. Emigrant, one who moves from for [Immigrant, one who combine native country as a resident.]
                                        ( Immigrant, one who comes into a
12. Eternal, what has always existed. for . . Everlasting, without end.
13. Exposition, explanation . . . for . . Exposure, laying open to consure.
14. Impracticable, what cannot be for . . Impassable, what cannot be passed.
15. Ingenious, apt in inventing . . for . . Ingenuous, frank, candit.
16. Intelligible, what may be un-
17. Mention, to name . . . . . for . . Allude, to him: at.
18. O'arrance, compliance with . . for . . O'arranor, a remark.
19. Presidate, to affirm . . . . fer . . Presid, to foretell
20. Presumptive, probable . . . . for . . Presumptuous, arrogant, confident,
21. Principal, capital, chief . . . for . . Principle, a settled rate, a minima.
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- 22. Proposition, a sentence . . . for . . Proposal, terms, condition.
- 23. Respectable, worthy of respect . for . . Respectful, deferential.

- 28. Veracity, applied to persons . . for . . Truth, applied to things.
 - c. Avoid improper Phrases; thus, instead of-
 - 1. Of all others Of all, -or, Of others.
- 2. Falling into conversation . . . say . . Engaging in conversation.
- 3. Hold fast by the tenets of religion say . . Hold fast the tenets, &c.
- 4. That creed never had a serious costing in the mind \ = never had a firm hold of, or made a strong impression on the mind.
- 637. In cultivating *Propriety* of Expression, aim, let, at forming clear and distinct ideas; and 2ndly, at expressing those ideas in appropriate language.

Precision.

LESSONS 92, 93. a. & b.—Ers. 92, 93. a. & b.—Page 134.

- x. 92.—638. Precision of Style consists in the use of such words and phrases as exactly convey the meaning intended, and nothing more. Precision requires attention to the following Rules:—
- 639. Rule 1.—a. Avoid repeating the same sense in different words. This fault is called Tautology. Thus, "Never did Atticus succeed in gaining the universal love and esteem of all men." Here one of the words in Italics is superfluous.
- b. For the same reason, the rerdant green, umbrageous shade, first aggressors, old veterans, rylran forest, standard pattern, are improper, as the ideas expressed by the adjectives are included in the substantives.—In the following common expressions also, as the same idea is implied in both the terms of each respective pair, the words in Italics are, therefore, superfluous:—plain and evident, clear and obvious, worship and adoration, pleasure and satisfaction, bounds and limits, suspicion and jealousy, intents and purposes.
- 640. Rule 2.—a. Avoid the use of superfluous words and phrases.—This fault is called Pleonasm.

Thus, "I went home full of a great many serious reflectious;" here, the words a great many add nothing to the sense; they should therefore be omitted. "If he happen to have any leisure upon his hands;" better, "If he have any leisure." "He has a considerable share of merit;" better, "He has considerable merit."

b. In particular cases, however, a certain species of pleonasm is entitled to some indulgence, when it serves to express an earnestness of offirmation on an interesting subject; as in phrases like these, "We have even with our eyes"—"We have heard with our ears." Such expressions frequently occur in the bacred Scriptures. In postical description, also, where the fancy is addressed,

epithets, which would otherwise be accounted superfluous, are not, if used moderately, without effect. The following are instances of this kind:—the arure heaven; the silver moon; the blushing morn; the sea-girl ide.

641. Rule 3.—a. Never introduce words which convey more than what was intended. This rule is frequently violated by the injudicious use of Synonyms.

The following sentence is incorrect in this respect:—"His courage and fortitude were such as to cause him to face every danger." Here, by endeavouring to
express one quality more strongly, the writer has introduced another. Courage
resists danger; fortitude supports pain; the word fortitude should, therefore, be
omitted.

- b. Synonymous words (being derived from different languages, one set being English and the other foreign,) had originally, as their name implies, the same meaning, and they still agree in the leading idea, but, at present, express some special difference in sense and application.
- c. As they are like different shades of the same colour, an accurate writer can employ them to great edvantage, by using them to us to heighten and finish the picture which he gives us. What was wanted in the one, to increase the force or the instre of the image which he means to exhibit, he supplies by the other. But, with a view to this end, he must be very careful in the choice which he makes of them, and not employ them promisenously, merely for the sake of filling up a period, or diversifying the language.
- 642. Rule 4.—a. Synonymous words are properly employed, First, When an obscure term, which we cannot avoid using, on account of some connexion with what either precedes or follows, requires to be explained by one that is clearer; Secondly, When the language of the passions is exhibited; Thirdly, When we wish to use a mild term to express something naturally offensive.
- b. Passion naturally duells on its object; the impossioned speaker always attempts to rise in expression; but when that is impracticable, he has recourse to repetition, and thus, in some measure, produces the same effect. The hearer perceiving him overpowered, as it were, by his subject, and at a loss to find words adequate to the strength of his feelings, is, by sympathy, carried along with him, and enters into all his sentiments. There is, in this case, an expressiveness in the very effort shown by resorting to synonymous words, which supplies the deficiency in the words themselves. Thus, Bolingbroke exclaims, in an invective against the times, "But all is little, and low, and mean among as." Though there is here a kind of amplification, or, at least, a stronger expression of indignation than any one of these three epithets could have effected alone, yet there is notimax in the sentence, and no consider difference of signification. But it will be easily perceived, that this manner suits only the popular and declarantery style, and that, in compositions which admit no species of the pathetic, it can have no place.
- E. 93. a. 643. An explanation of the most common Synonyms is subjoined, that the student may be enabled to apply them with propriety:—

Alandon, forsake, relinquish, desert, give up, leave, quit. Alandon is unwillingly to give up anything, as, We were compelled to alandon our object; forsake is to leave a person in resentment or dislike, as, He has forsaken all; relinquish is to quit any claim to, as, I relinquish my claim to that estate; desert is to leave meanly or treache-

rously, as, He descrited his friend in need. We can say of a man, He gives up a place of trust, leaves his parents in affliction, and quits his country.

To abdicate, renounce, resign. To abdicate a throne or high dignity, renounce an error, resign an office or situation, high or low.

To abate, diminish, decrease, lessen, relax, impair. To abate in eagerness, diminish in number. decrease in quantity, lessen in value, relax in industry, impair in vigour or intellect.

To abhor, hate, detest, despise, abominate, loathe, scorn. Abhor is strongly to dislike; to hate is a dislike produced by revenge; to detest is an aversion from disapprobation; to despise is to look down upon with contempt; to abominate is to detest in the highest possible degree; to loathe is to be disgusted at the sight of offensive objects; to scorn is to consider as utterly unworthy. We abhor a crime, hate a liar, detest treachery, despise affectation, scorn meanness, abominate ingratitude, loathe bad food.

Abolish, annul, abrogate, revoke, repeal. To abolish customs; annul a contract; abrogate a law; revoke a promise or decree; repeal a statute.

Ability, capacity. Ability is an active quality of the mind to do anything well; capacity is a passive quality to receive or comprehend anything;—thus, an able commander; a man of a capacious mind.

Acquiesce, resign, agree in, consent. To acquiesce in a person's authority; to resign from a sense of duty; agree in disposition or opinion; consent by persuasion.

Accost, salute, address. Accost a stranger; salute a friend; address, to direct our discourse to a person in company.

Acknowledge, own, confess, arow. To acknowledge or own supposes a small degree of delinquency; to confess supposes a higher degree of criminality; to arow is to glory in what we declare. Thus, a gentleman acknowledges his mistake, a prisoner confesses the crime of which he is accused, and a patriot arows his opposition to every corrupt measure.

Acquaintance, familiarity, intimacy. Acquaintance springs from occasional intercourse, familiarity from frequent intercourse; intimacy arises not merely from frequent intercourse, but from unreserved communication.

Active, diligent, industrious, assiduous, laborious. We are active, if we exert our powers, whether to any end or not; diligent, when we are active to some specific end; industrious, when no time is left unemployed in some serious pursuit; assiduous, when we do not leave a thing until it is finished; laborious, when the bodily or mental powers are regularly employed in some hard labour.

Acute, sharp. Acute, piercing like a needle; sharp, cutting like a knife, quick.

Addict, devote, apply. We are addicted to a thing from a particular propensity; devoted to a thing from a settled attachment to it; we apply to a thing from a sense of its utility. Thus, men use addicted to vices; devote their talents to the acquirement of any art or science; apply their minds to the investigation of a subject.

Affront, insult, outrage. An intentional breach of politeness is an affront; if coupled with any external indication of hostility, it is un insult; if it break forth into personal violence, it is an outrage.

Agreement, contract, corenant, compact, bargain. The simple consent of parties constitutes an agreement; a seal and signature are requisite for a contract; a solemn engagement on the one hand, and faith in that engagement on the other, enter into the nature of a corenant; a tacit sense of mutual obligation in all the parties, giver virtue to a compact; an assent to stipulated terms of sale, may form a bargain.

Air, micn, look, manners. An air depends not only on the countenance, but on the carriage and action; micn respects the whole outward uppearance; look depends altogether on the face and its changes; manners depend on the general habits and behaviour.

Alone, only. Alone means unaccompanied by any one, us, He was alone all the day; only means no other of the same kind, as, He is an only son.

Amazed, astonished, surprised, confounded. We are amazed at what is incomprehensible; astonished at what is vast or great; surprised at what is new or unexpected; confounded by what is shocking or terrible.

Ambiguous, equivocal. An equivocal expression has two meanings: one open, and intended to be understood; the other conecaled, and understood only by the person who uses the expression. An ambiguous expression has, apparently, two senses, and leaves us in doubt which of the two to prefer. An honest man will refrain from employing an equivocal expression; a confused man may often utter ambiguous terms without any design.

Authentic, genuine. An authentic book is one in which matters of fact are related as they really happened; a genuine book is one that is written by the person whose name it bears. Thus, we speak of the authenticity of Gibbon's History, that is, of its nuthority as a record of facts; und of the genuineness of Ossian's Poems, that is, whether or not they were composed by the person to whom they are useribed.

Amend, correct, reform, rectify, emend, improve. We amend our moral conduct; correct errors; reform our life; rectify mistakes; emend the readings of an author; improve our mind or condition.

Ashamed, bashful. Ashamed of our faults; bashful when spoken to.

Assurance, impudence. Assurance is confidence in one's self; impudence is shamelessness or want of modesty, an unblushing kind of impertinence. Austere, rigid, severe, rigorous, stern. Austere applies to ourselves as well as to others; rigid, to ourselves only; severe, rigorous, stern, apply to others only. The austere man mortifies himself; the rigid man binds himself to a rule. A man is severe in his remarks on others; rigorous in his discipline, stern in his commands.

To arrive, happen. We arrive at a place, but misfortunes happen to us.

Beautiful, handsome, pretty. Handsome relates to the proportion of the whole figure, pretty to the face; beautiful is a union of the two; thus, "A handsome man; a pretty or beautiful woman."

Behaviour, conduct, carriage, deportment, demeanour. Behaviour respects all actions exposed to the notice of others; conduct respects the general line of a person's moral proceedings; carriage signifies simply the manner of carrying the body; deportment is applied only to those exterior actions that have an immediate reference to others; demeanour is applied to the general behaviour, as it relates to the circumstance and situation of the individual.

Brightness, lustre, splendour, brilliancy. Brightness is the generic, the test are specific terms, rising in sense; thus, lustre rises on brightness, splendour on lustre, and brilliancy on splendour.

Calamity, misfortune, disaster. Calamity applies to some public misfortune; as, war, pestilence, &c.; misfortune applies to an individual; as, loss of property, &c.; disaster applies to some unfortunate event which proves a hindrance to work, &c.

Ceremonious, ceremonial. The former is applied to a form of civility, the latter to a religious rite.

Cheerfulness, mirth. Cheerfulness is a settled state or habit; mirth is a single act.

Clearness, perspicuity. Clearness respects our ideas; perspicuity, the mode of expressing those ideas.

Complaisant, gallant, polite, well-bred, courteous. Complaisant applies to our address; a gallant lover; a polite man; a well-bred gentleman; a courteous or kind companion.

Comprehend, understand, conceive, apprehend. When we conceive, we may have but one idea; when we understand or comprehend, we have all the ideas which the subject can present; when we apprehend, we take in much, but not the whole. Conceive is employed on matters of taste; understanding on familiar objects; comprehending on principles, lessons, &c. Thus, the builder conceives plans, the scholar understands languages, the metaphysician comprehends subtle questions.

Conceal, dissemble, disguise. Conceal our designs; dissemble our thoughts; disguise our intentions.

Conquer, subdue, surmount, vanquish, subjugate. Vanquish an enemy; conquer a country; subdue an enemy or our passions; surmount an obstacle; subjugate a nation.

Conscience, consciousness. The former denotes the faculty by which we judge of our own conduct; the latter denotes a particular exertion of that faculty.

Contemptuously, contemptibly. The former term signifies to speak disrespectfully of a person; the latter implies that the manner of speaking is contemptible.

Courage, fortitude, resolution. Courage respects action; fortitude respects passion or enduring a thing; resolution simply marks the will not to recede. A man has courage to meet danger; resolution not to yield to the first difficulties that offer; fortitude to endure pain.

Custom, habit. Custom is a frequent repetition of the same act; habit the effect of such repetition. The custom of rising early in the morning is conducive to health, and may, in a short time, become such a habit as to render it no less agreeable than it is useful.

Determination, resolution, decision. We determine upon what ought to be done; we resolve from a moral principle to carry out our determination; we show decision when we firmly adhere to a judgment formed.

Diversity, difference, distinction. Diversity is applied to glaring contrasts; difference, to less obvious but still great unlikeness; distinction, to still less obvious but evident differences. A good logician will make a distinction where there is a difference.

Difficulty, obstacle, impediment. A difficulty embarrasses us, an obstacle intervenes between us and our object, an impediment puts a stop to our proceedings. We encounter a difficulty, surmount an obstacle, remove an impediment.

Discover, intent. We discover what existed, but which was unknown before; we invent what before did not exist.

Doctrines, precepts, principles. Doctrine is that which constitutes our faith; a precept is that which directs the practice; a principle is the beginning or prime moving cause of a thing. We believe in doctrines, obey precepts, imbibe or hold principles.

Dumb, silent, mute. He is dumb who cannot speak, eilent who does not speak, mute whose silence is compulsory.

Endurance, duration. The former properly signifies patience, as applied to suffering; the latter means lasting, as applied to time.

Enlarge, increase. Enlarge is applied to dimension and extent; increase is applied to number. We enlarge a house; increase an army, property, expense.

Enough, sufficient. He has enough whose desires are satisfied; he has sufficient whose wants are supplied. A greedy man has never enough, though he has more than a sufficiency.

Falsehood, lie, untruth, falsity. An untruth and a falsity are untrue sayings, which may be unintentional or not; a falsehood and a lie both express contrariety to fact; but a falsehood may or may not be uttered with a design to mislead, while a lie always implies a direct intention to deceive.

Haughtiness, disdain, arrogance, presumption. Haughtiness is founded on the high opinion which we entertain of ourselves; disdain, on the low opinion we have of others; arrogance is a haughty assumption of too much importance; presumption is a headstrong and unwarrantable confidence.

Human, humanc. Human means mortal; humanc, kind.

Idle, lazy, indolent, slothful. An idle person dislikes work, though he may be active in some things; a lazy person may employ himself, but will not trouble himself to become either skilful or accurate; slothful and indolent are opposite to active.

Inform, instruct, teach, educate. Inform is simply to communicate what was unknown before; instruct and teach imply communicating knowledge gradually and regularly; educate implies both to instruct and draw out the faculties so as to teach one's self.

L. 93. b .- Less, fewer. Less is applied to quantity, fewer to number.

Maimed, cripple, lame. Maimed means wanting a limb; cripple, wanting the use of it; lameness is the result of either of these causes.

The mind, the intellect. The mind comprehends the thinking faculty in general, with all its operations; the intellect includes only that part of it which consists in understanding and judgment.

Mislcad, delude. Mislcad is simply to lead astray; delude is intentionally to deceive.

Mutual, common. Mutual means reciprocal, implying an interchange, and is applied to two persons; as, "mutual friendship;" common means what belongs alike to several or many; as, "our common country," "our common friend."

Negligence, neglect. The former implies a habit, the latter an act.

Peace, quiet, calm, tranquillity. Peace is applied to nations as well as to individuals; quiet is applied to small communities; calm is used with respect to a disturbed situation going before, or succeeding; tranquillity respects a situation free from trouble, considered in itself. A good man enjoys tranquillity in himself, peace with others, quiet in his family, and calm after a storm.

Persevere, persist. Persevere is generally used in a good sense, and refers to the actions and the conduct; persist refers to the opinions and will, and implies neither praise nor blame, but often makes a person rush and opinionative. We persevere in work and study; we persist in an argument

Pride, vanity. Pride makes us esteem ourselves; vanity makes us desire the esteem of others. Pride is applicable to every object, good or bad, high or low, small or great; vanity is generally confined to small objects. A man is proud who values himself on the possession of his literary or scientific talent—on his wealth, rank, power, &c.; he is vain of his person, dress, walk, or anything that is frivolous.

Proposal, proposition. Proposal is something offered, as terms or conditions for the sale or purchase of articles which are to be accepted or rejected; a proposition is a sentence, or something stated or affirmed for consideration or discussion.

Remark, observe. We remark, in the way of attention, in order to remember; we observe, in the way of examination, in order to judge. A traveller remarks the most interesting object he sees; a general observes all the motions of the enemy.

Remember, remind. We are reminded by others; we remember of ourselves.

Reply, answer. Reply is something simply said in return; an answer is that which confutes or silences an objector.

Risible, ridiculous, ludierous. Risible has an active meaning; ridiculous a passive meaning, exciting contempt. Ludierous means something tending to produce laughter. Man is a risible animal; a fop is a ridiculous character; an affair may be ludierous.

Riches, richness. The former denotes the things possessed, or what constitutes the opulence of the owner; the latter denotes the quality of the thing possessed.

Sincere, honest. These words are frequently misapplied. Sincere (sine cerá, without wax). means pure, unalloyed; hence, ingenuous, without fraud or disguise. Honest is what is fair, open, proper, unreserved, upright, virtuous, straightforward; hence trustworthy. An honest man prefers his oath, his duty, and his promise to his interest or his party.

Sophism, sophistry. The former denotes a fallacious argument, the latter fallacious reasoning.

Together, successively. The former means at the same time, the latter signifies one after the other.

Veracity, reality, or truth. Veracity is applicable to persons only, and denotes that moral quality which consists in speaking truth; truth is applied to things. We say the truth or verity of the relation or thing told, and the reracity of the relater.

Verdict, testimony. A witness gives his testimony; the jury give their terdict.

Whole, entire, complete. Whole excludes subtraction; entire excludes division; complete excludes delicionly. A whole orange has had nothing taken from it; an entire orange is not yet cut; and a

complete orange is grown to its full size. A man may have an entire house to himself, and not one complete apartment.

Wisdom, prudence, discretion. Wisdom consists in speculative knowledge; prudence, in that which is practicable; discretion acts according to circumstances, and is its own rule. Wisdom knows what is past; prudence, by foresight, knows what is to come; and discretion perceives what is, in all probability, right.

With, by. With expresses a closer and more immediate connection, by a more remote one. With sometimes denotes the instrument, by the cause; as, "He was killed with a stone by David." By sometimes implies the mode; as, "We travelled by railroad."

The preceding List of Synonyms is sufficiently ample to show the importance of this subject; for additional information, the student is referred to Crabbe's English Synonyms, Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases, Graham's Synonyms, Whately's Synonyms, and Taylor's Synonyms.

644. This subject cannot be better concluded, than by recommending the student carefully to endeavour to render his meaning full and distinct; avoiding, on the one hand, too great a conciseness of expression, and, on the other, that kind of obscurity which arises from involving the sense in a cloud of words.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

LESSONS 94. a. & b.—Exercises 92. a. & b.—Page 138.

- z. 94. a.—645. Sentences, with regard to Structure, may be divided into two kinds, the *Period* and the *Loose* Sentence. (See 303, 312, 314.)
- 646. A Perion is a sentence in which the parts are so intimately connected, that the meaning remains suspended till the whole is finished.

EXAMPLE.—"To eye God in all our comforts, and observe the smiling aspects of His face, when He dispenses them to us; to eye Him in all our afflictions, and consider the paternal wisdom that instructs us in them; how would this lacense our mercies, and mitigate our troubles!" This is a Period consisting of several clauses, at any of which, if a stop were made before the end, tho preceding words would not form a sentence, nor convey any determinate sense.

647. A LOOSE sentence admits either of one or of several pauses before the end, at which, if a stop were made, the construction of the preceding part would form a complete sentence.

FRANCE.—" One party had given their whole attention, during several years, to the project of enriching themselver, and impoverishing the rest of the nation; and thus of exhabitshing their dominion, under the government and with the favour of a family who were foreigners, who might, therefore, believe that they were established on the throne by the good will and strength of this party alone." In this sentence, whether a pause be made at themselver, nation, dominion, or foreigners, the preceding words will form a perfect sentence.

- 648. a. Each of these kinds of sentences has its advantages and disadvantages. The Period gives to style, energy and riracily, accompanied, however, with some degree of stateliness and formality; on the other hand, the Loose sentence is generally characterized by ease and familiarity. Hence, the Periodic structure ought to prevail more in historical, political, and philosophical writings; whilst Loose sentences ought to predominate in essays, dialogues, familiar letters, and moral tales.
 - b. When either of these kinds is continued too long, the style is apt to become tedlous; attention, therefore, must be paid to a proper rariety in the structure of our centences.—In the employment of the periodic style, also, an author must not depart too far from collequial usage, lest he betray an elaborate stateliness—a fault which is always disagreeable.
 - 649. In the Structure of Scatteness, the essential quality is Perspicuity, which requires Clearness and Unity.

Clearness.

650. Clearness requires, I. Accuracy with regard to the proper Inflexion of words; 2. An adherence to the rules of concord, government, and structure of sentences; 3. That

arrangement of words and members of sentences, by which their relation and connection are rendered determinate and perspicuous.—Clearness requires attention to the following Rules:—

651. Rule 1.—Care must be taken that relatives, adverbs, and connecting particles should (according to Rule 382) be placed near those words to which they refer, or which they connect.

Thus, "It is folly to pretend to arm ourselves, against the accidents of life, by heaping up treasures which nothing can protect us against, but the good providence of our heavenly Father." The sentence oughtto have been arranged thus,—"It is folly to pretend, by heaping up treasures, to arm ourselves against the accidents of life, against which nothing can protect us but the good providence of our heavenly Father."

652. Rule 2.—Words expressing things connected in thought, should be placed as near together as possible. Thus, the sentence, "God heapeth favours on His servants, ever liberal and faithful," should be thus expressed, "God, ever liberal and faithful, heapeth favours on His servants."

"I with my family reside in the parish of Stockton, which consists of my wife and daughters." This semtence is a violation of the rule; it should be arranged thus,—"I with my family, which consists of my wife and daughters, reside in the parish of Stockton."

- 653. Rule 3.—When different things have an obvious relation to one another, with respect to the order of time, place, cause and effect, or the like, a corresponding order should be observed in assigning them their position in the sentence. Thus, instead of saying, "He was resigned to the will of God in dying and suffering," we should say, "in suffering and dying."
- E. 94. b.—654. Rule 4.—a. Clauses expressing the circumstances of time and place, must be placed as nearly as possible at the beginning of a sentence.

Thus, "The moon was easting a pale light on the numerous graves that were scattered before me, as it peered above the horizon, when I opened the small gate of the churchyard," will be better rendered by saying, "When I opened the small gate of the churchyard, the moon, as it peered above the horizon, was easting a pale light on the numerous graves that lay scattered before me."

- b. This Rule does not apply to clauses intended to affect the meaning of particular parts of the sentence.
- c. Clauses denoting circumstances respecting the action, should be placed near that part of the sentence, the meaning of which they are intended to affect.

EXAMPLE.—"The emperor was so intent on the establishment of his absolute power in Hungary, that he exposed the empire doubly to desolution and rain for the sake of it." The emperor was so intent on the establishment of his absolute power in Hungary, that, for the take of it, he exposed the empire doubly to desolution and rain."

655. Rule 5.—a. A clause, expressing a circumstance, must never be placed between two principal members of a sentence;

for, by such an arrangement, we are left in doubt to which of the two the circumstance refers.

EXAMPLE.—"Though our brother is upon the rack, to long as we ourselves are of ease, our senses will never inform us of what he suffers," will be better expressed thus: "Though our brother is upon the rack, our senses will never, so long as we ourselves ore at ease, inform us of what he suffers."

b. Clauses expressing circumstances must not be crowded together, but be interspersed in different parts of the sentence, and joined with the principal words on which they depend.

EXAMPLE.—"What I had the opportunity of mentioning to my friend, some time ago, in contersation, was not a new thought." The following arrangement is preferable:—"What I had the opportunity, some time ago, of mentioning to my friend, in contersation, was not a new thought."

c. The strongest part of the thought, or that part of the sentence which forms the result, should, if possible, be placed the last.

Unity of a Sentence.

LESSONS 95. a. & b .- Exercises 95. c. & b .- Page 141.

z. 95. a.—65G. The Unity of a sentence denotes the predominancy of only one proposition or enunciation of thought, and a uniformity of construction throughout the sentence. Different circumstances may, indeed, be introduced, but these must always be made subservient to the principal subject.

657. Rule 1.—a. As every sentence should contain only one principal idea, we should not introduce other ideas which are only remotely connected with it. Distinct thoughts should occupy separate sentences.

Example.—"In this unexy state, both of his public and private life, Cicero was oppressed by a new and cruel affliction, the death of his beloved Tullia; which happened soon after her divorce from Dolabella, whose manners and humours were entirely disagreeable to her." The principal subject in this sontence is the death of Tullia, which was the cause of her father's affliction. The time when the event took place is, without any impropriety, pointed out in the course of the sentence; but the addition of Dolabella's character is foreign to the main object. By presenting a new picture to the reader, we destroy the unity and compactness of the period. The sentiments would be better expressed in the rentences, thus: "In this unexy state, both of his public and private life, Cicero was oppressed with a new and cruel affliction, the death of his beloved Tullia, which event happened soon after her divorce from Dolabella. The manners and humours of this man were entirely disagreeable to her."

b. Sentences must never be extended beyond their natural close.

EXAMPLE—"Durnet could not end his learned treatise without a panegyric on molern learning and knowledge, in comparison of the ancient; whilst Fontenella falls so precisy into the centure of the old poetry and preference of the new, that I could not read either of these stratus without fadignation, which no quality among men is so art to raise in me as sufficiency, the west composition out of the pride and femorance of mankind." Of this sentence, the word indignation forms the natural conclusion; what follows is fereign to the proposition with which the author commenced.

- 658. Rule 2.—a. In the construction of sentences, regard must be had that they be, in general, neither very long nor very short. Long sentences, unless constructed with care, require close attention, to make us clearly perceive the connection of the several parts; whilst short ones are apt to break the sense, and weaken the connection of thought.
- b. Whenever it is necessary to employ long sentences, care must be taken that the different parts be so arranged and constructed, that each part may be understood as the sentence proceeds, not leaving the meaning of the different parts, as well as of the whole sentence, to be gathered at its close.

EXAMPLE.—"It is not without a degree of patient attention and persevering diligence, greater than the generality are willing to bestow, though not greater than the object deserves, that the habit can be acquired, of examining and judging of our own conduct, with the same accuracy and impartiality as of that of another." Here the sense is not clear till towards the close of the sentence; the following construction will remove this defect:—"The habit of examining our own conduct as accurately as that of another, and judging of it with the same impartiality, cannot be acquired without a degree of patient attention and persevering diligence, not greater, indeed, than the object deserves, but greater than the generality are willing to bestow." The two sentences are nearly the same, both in length and in the words employed; but the alteration of the arrangement allows the latter to be understood, clause by clause, as it proceeds. (Dr. Whately.)

659. Another specimen of a long untence is here given, that the pupil may perceive the disadvantages of such sentences, and how easily they may be amended: "Though in yesterday's paper we showed how everything that is great, new, or beautiful, is apt to affect the imagination with pleasure, we must own that it is impossible for us to assign the necessary cause of this pleasure, because we know neither the nature of an idea, nor the substance of a human soul; and therefore, for want of such a light, all that we can do in speculations of this kind, is to reflect on those operations of the soul that are most agreeable; and to range, under their proper heads, what is pleasing or displeasing to the mind, without being able to trace out the several necessary and efficient causes whence the pleasure or displeasure arises." We shall now divide the foregoing into several distinct sentences: "In yesterday's paper, we showed that every thing which is great, new, or beautiful, is apt to affect the imagination with pleasure. We must own, that it is impossible for us to assign the efficient cause of this pleasure, because we know not the nature either of an idea, or of the human soul. All that we can do, therefore, in speculations of this kind, is to reflect on those operations of the soul which are most agreeable, and to range under proper heads what is pleasing or displeading to the mind."

660. Rule 3.—In every discourse, there must be a proper mixture of long and short sentences, and of those variously constructed.

A continued succession of either long or short sentences, or of those constructed with the same number of members, is both tedious to the ear and destructive of force and animation of style.

z. 95. b.—661. Rule 4.—During the course of a sentence, the scene should be changed as little as possible, and the same Nominatives be applied to the same Subject. One principal person or thing should be predominant, and one uniform mode of construction be observed throughout.

EXAMPLE.—" After we came to anchor, they put me on shore, where I was welcomed by all my friends, who received me with the greatest kindness." In this sentence, though the objects contained in it have a connection with one

onother, yet, by changing so often both the place and the person, we and they, I and who, and by unnecessarily mixing active and passive verbs, not only is the sense weakened, but the unity of the sentence impaired. The following construction renders the sentence correct: "The ship having been brought to anchor, I was put on shore, where I was welcomed by all my friends, and received with the greatest kindness."

662. Rule 5.—a. Those members of a sentence which express a comparison or contrast between two things, require a corresponding resemblance in the language and construction.

EXAMPLES.—"A friend exaggerates a man's virtues, an enemy inflames his crimes." Here, the opposition in the thought is neglected in the words; it will be properly expressed thus: "A friend exaggerates a man's virtues, an enemy his crimes."

- "I have observed, of late, the ctyle of some great ministers very much to exceed that of any other productions." Instead of productions, which bear no relation to ministers, the author ought to have eaid writers or authors.
- b. The following passage, from Pope's Preface to his Homer, fully exemplifies the Rule just given:—"Homer was the greater genius, Virgil the better artist; in the one we most admire the man, in the other the work. Homer hurries us with a commanding impetuosity; Virgil leads us with an attractive majesty. Homer centers with a generous productor; Virgil bestows with a careful magnificance. Homer, like the Nile, pours out his riches with a sudden overflow; Virgil, like o river in its banks, with a constant stream." This picture, however, would have been faultless, if to the Nile some particular river had been opposed. Sentences thus constructed, when introduced with propriety, and not recurring too often, have a sensible beauty. But we must avoid directing our ottention too much to this beauty. It ought to be used only when the comparison or opposition of objects naturally leads to it; otherwise, when such a construction as this is uniformly aimed at, our compositions will become thresome to the ear, and plainly discover affectation.
- 663. Rule 6.—a. Parentheses should, as much as possible, he avoided, and the thought, implied by the parenthetical member, he transferred to the following sentence.
- b. When the parentheses ore very short, and some as necessary explanations, they may be admitted; but these must be so judiciously introduced as to glide, at once, into our conception, without compelling the reader to review what preceded the interruption. The parenthesis in the following sentence is correctly introduced:—

"And was the ransom paid? It was; and paid (What can exalt the bounty more?) for thee."

In the following sentence, however, there is an evident impropriety in its use: "If your hearts secretly reproach you for the wrong choice you have made (as there is time for rependance and retreat, and a return to wisdom is always honourable), bethink yourselves that the evil is not irreperable." This sentence would be better if it were divided into two; thus, "If your hearts secretly repreach you for the wrong choice which you have made, bethink yourselves that the evil is not irreperable. Etill there is time for repentance and retreat; and a return to wisdom is always honourable."

ENERGY OR VIVACITY OF EXPRESSION.

LESSON 96.—Exercise 96.—Page 145.

- 664. Energy of Expression comprehends every thing that conduces to stimulate the attention, to impress strongly on the mind the arguments adduced, to excite the imagination, and arouse the feelings.
- 665. Energy or Vivacity of Expression depends, first, on the Choice of Words: secondly, on their Number; and, thirdly, on their Arrangement.

1. The Choice of Words.

666. Rule 1.—a. Particular instead of General terms.—Nothing can contribute more to enliven the expression, than that all the words employed be as particular and determinate in their signification, as will suit the nature and object of the discourse. The more general the terms are, the fainter will be the picture; the more special they are, the brighter it will be.

The same sentiments may be expressed with equal justness, and even perspiculty, in the former mode, as in the latter; but as the colouring will, in that care, be more languid, it cannot give equal pleasure to the imagination, and, consequently, will not contribute so much either to fix the attention or to impress the memory.

b. In philosophical subjects, in which the understanding alone is addressed, general terms are the most appropriate. But, in subjects in which the imagination and the passions are addressed, terms must be chosen which are as particular as possible, as it is solely by these that the object can be vividly depicted.

Thus, "They sank as lead in the mighty waters," says Moses, when speaking of the Egyptians, in the song occasioned by the miraculous passage of the Israelites through the Red Sea. Had he used general instead of particular terms, and said, "They fell as metal in the mighty waters," the difference in the effect would have been very great. In the former sentence, to sink is the species, as it implies only falling or moving downwards in a liquid element; in the second sentence, to fall answers to the genus; in like manner, lead is the species, metal is the genus.

For the same reason, Milton, in describing the attitude in which Satan was discovered by Ithuriel and his company, when that malignant spirit was employed in infusing pernicious thoughts into the mind of our first mother, says—

"Him there they found Squat like a toad, close at the ear of Eve."

No word in the language could have so happily expressed the posture, as that which the poet has here chosen.

"Consider," says our Lord, "the Illies, how they grow: they toil not, they spin not: and yet I say unto you, that Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like one of these. If then God so clothe the grass, which is to-day in the field, and to-morrow is cast into the oven; how much more will He ciothe you?"

"Let us here adopt," says Dr. Campbell, "a little of the fasteless manner of modern paraphrasts, by the substitution of more general terms, one of their many expedients of infrigidating, and let us observe the effect produced by this change. 'Consider the flowers, how they gradually increase in their size: they do no manner of work, and yet I declare to you, that no hing whatever, in his most splendid habit, is dressed up like them. If then, God, in His providence, doth so adorn the vegetable productions, which continue but a little time on the land, and are afterwards put into the fire, how much more will He provide clocking for you?'" How spiritless is the same sentiment rendered by those small variations! The very particularizing of to-day and to-morrow, is infinitely more expressive of transitoriness, than any description given in general terms, that can be substituted in its room.

- c. Sometimes, also, the imagery will be enlivened, not only by particularizing, but by individuating the object presented to the mind; thus, the Royal Psalmist says, "White as the snow in Schoon"
- It is not, however, to be understood, that this method of individuating the object ought always to be preferred by the poet or the orator. It must be used with caution, particularly if we wish our writings to be more extensively known than in our immediate neighbourhood.
- d. On the same principle, whatever tends to subject the thing spoken of to the notice of our senses, especially of our cyes, renders the expression more animated.

Thus, St. Paul, in addressing the Ephesians, says, "I have covered no man's silver, or gold, or apparel. Yea, ye yourselves know, that these hands have ministered unto my necessities, and to them that were with me." Had he said, "my hands," the sentence would have lost nothing in meaning or in perspicuity, but very much in siteatis.

c. To the preceding remarks we may add, that, in composition, particularly of the descriptive kind, if we wish to present to the mind a vivid image, we must advance from general expressions to special: and thence, to more particular.

Thus, were a preacher, in a discourse on Vice and Irreligion, to formish only some general remarks on these subjects in the abstract, without particularizing any one vice, the impression, if any, made on the minds of his hearer, must necessarily be extremely faint. But if, on the contrary, however to duellen some one vice, and particularize its nature and consequences, the ideas thus conveyed to the mind, would be far more vivid and impressive.

- 667. "The only appropriate occasion for general language is," as Dr. Whately justly observes, "when we wish to aroid giving a vivid impression,—when our object is to soften what is offensive, disgusting, or shocking; as, when we speak of an execution, for the infliction of the sentence of death on a criminal: of which kind of expressions, common discourse furnishes numberless instances. On the other hand, in Antony's speech over Caesar's body, his object being to excite horror, Shakspeare puts into his mouth the most particular expressions in the following words:—'those honourable men (not who killed Caesar, but) whose daggers have stabled Caesar."
 - 063. Rule 2 .- Another mode of colivening the style is-
 - a. First, when an individual is employed to represent a

species; or a species, a genus; or a part, or the most interesting circumstance, to represent the whole; as, when we say, "A Solomon," for a wise man; "A sail," for a ship; "The Lord is my song," says Moses; "He is become my salvation;" that is, "the subject of my song, the author of my salvation."

In a similar manner, the passion is employed to represent its object, the operation its subject, the instrument the agent, and the gift the giver.

- b. Secondly, When things sensible are put for things intellectual; thus, we say, "The mitre," for the priesthood; "The crown," for royalty; "The sword," for the military profession. (See 562.)
- c. Thirdly, When things animate are used to represent things that are inanimate; thus, we sometimes style a literary performance, "The offspring of the brain." Ceres is used to denote bread : Bacchus, to denote wine.
- 669. The following modes of expression are calculated to obstruct vivacity:-When the genus is put for the species, the schole for a part, the matter for the instrument or thing made, and the intellectual for the sensible. These modes of expression arise,—First, from a disposition to rary the expression, and prevent the too frequent recurrence of the same sound upon the ear. Hence, the genus is sometimes put for the species. Secondly, from an inclination to suggest contempt without rudeness, that is, not openly to express, but indirectly to insinuate it. Thus, when a particular man is called a creature or an animal, there is a sort of tacit refusal of the specific attributes of human nature. But the phrases, no creature, and every creature, like all the world, are a kind of hyperbolic fidioms which do not belong to this class. Thirdly, from a desire of palliating the representation, and that either from humanity, from courtesy, or from decempy. All these modes of expression have been denominated Euphemism, signifying a softened expression. (See 583. b.)

2. The Number of Words.

LESSONS 97. a. & b.—Exercises 97. a. & b.—Page 146.

L. 97. a.-670. Rule 3.-a. With respect to Energy or Vivacity, as depending on the Number of words, it may be established as a maxim, that the fewer the words are, provided perspicuity is not violated, the more vivid is the expression.

"As when the rays of the sun," observes Campbell, "are collected into the focus of a burning glass, the smaller the spot is which receives them, compared with the surface of the glass, the greater are the heat and splendour; so, in exhibiting our sentiments by speech, the narrower the compact of words is, in which the thought is comprised, the more energetic is the expression."

b. Conciseness of expression is not, however, equally adapted to every subject. It is most appropriate to the preceptive, aphoristic, and proverbial styles.

Example -"Nor love thy life, nor hate; but what thou liv'st, Live well; how long or short, permit to Heav'n."-Millon.

The aphoristic style is employed to convey the discoveries of science, the prorerbial style to convey the maxims of common life.

- c. On the other hand, the kinds of writing least susceptible of conciseness of expression, are the descriptive, the pathetic, and particularly the declamatory. It is, besides, much more suitable in writing than in speaking, because a reader, having the command of his time, may read fast or slowly, as it is more convenient; he can peruse a sentence a second time when necessary, or lay down the book and think.
- d. But if, in a public address, you comprise a great deal in few words, the hearer must have uncommon quickness of apprehension to catch your meaning, before you have put it out of his power, by engaging his attention to something else. In oration, therefore, it is particularly unsuitable; and consequently, in all kinds of writing that are addressed to the people, it is more or less so, as they partiake more or less of popular declamation.
- 671. Rule 4.—a. Though energetic brevity is not adapted alike to every subject, we ought always to avoid its contrary, Verbosity, that is, a languid redundancy of words.
- b. The principal faults against Energy of Expression are, Tautology, Pleonasm, and Verbosity. Tautology (as observed in 639) is the repetition of the same sense in different words; Pleonasm (640) is the use of superfluous words; Verbosity is the use of unnecessary or unimportant clauses or circumstances.
- c. In a proper Pleonasm, a complete correction is always made by crasing the words; but in the rerbose style, it is often necessary, not only to expunge words, but to recast the whole sentence. The following Cautions are applicable to Verbosity:—
- 672. Caution 1.—Avoid inserting any clause which, on a superficial view only, may appear to suggest something that heightens, but which, on reflection, is found to diminish the vigour of the sentiment.
- EXAMPLE—"Neither is any condition of life more honourable in the right of God than another, otherwise, He would be a respectant persons, which Heavurg in Heis not." It is evident, that this last clause energate the thought, as it implies, that without this assurance from God himself, we should naturally conclude Him to be of a character different from that which has been here given Him by the speaker.
- 673. Caution 2.—a. Avoid loading every proposition with assercrations, as these tend to weaken rather than strengthen an assertion.
- b. As such a practice in conversation more commonly infuses a suspicion of the speaker's veracity, than engages the belief of the heaver, it has a similar effect in writing. In our translation of the Bible, for instance, the translators improperly represent the Almightyns declaring to Adam, "In the day that then eater thereof thou shalt surely die." The advert surely, instead of enforcing, as the translators intended, only enfeebles the demunication, as a ground of mistrust is inclinated, to which to affirmation is a counterpoise. Such adverts must never be used, either when the character of the speaker or the critique for a thing, is such as precludes the smallest doubt.
- c. The preceding remarks are not applicable, however, to such a phrase as, "Teruly, reruly, I say unto you," a mode of expression so frequently adopted

by our Lord. As these words enter not into the body of the proposition, but are employed solely to introduce it, they are to be considered as a call to attention, serving not so much to affirm the reality, as the importance of what is to be said. (Dr. Campbell's Rhet.)

- 674. Caudion 3.—a. Be careful in the use of *Epithets*. When Epithets are sparingly and judiciously employed, they are conducive to Energy of Expression; but, otherwise, they only betray an effort to cover poverty of sentiment by mock sublimity of language.
- b. By the term Epithet, is here meant, not every adjective annexed to a noun, but such words as add nothing to the sense, and signify something already implied in the noun itself. Thus, when I say, "the glorious sun," the word glorious is an epithet, because it expresses a quality which is implied in the noun itself. But, when I say, "the meridian sun," the word meridian is not an epithet, as it denotes the sun in that situation in which it appears at noon.
- c. Young or inexperienced writers frequently abound with such expressions as, horrible, shocking, most extraordinary, unparalleled, and similar words of great force. This is to waste strength on mere trifles. Strong expressions on every occasion betray ignorance both of literary propriety and of the style adopted in well-educated society.
- d. Epithets are properly employed, first, when they explain a Metaphor, or, secondly, when they express something which, though implied in the subject, would not, perhaps, have occurred to the mind of the hearer, but which it is important to notice with a view to our present purpose.
- e. "Indeed, it will generally happen," observes Archbishop Whately, "that the epithets employed by a skilful orator, will be found to be, in fact, so many abridged arguments, the force of which is sufficiently conveyed by a mere hint. Thus, if any one should say, 'We ought to take warning from the bloody revolution of France,' the epithet would suggest one of the reasons for our being warned, and that, not less clearly, but perhaps more forcibly, than if the argument had been stated at length."
- 675. Caution 4.—a. Avoid a prolixity in narration, arising from the mention of unnecessary circumstances.

Circumstances may be denominated unnecessary, either when not of such importance that the scope of the relation is affected by their being known, or, when they are implied in the other circumstances related. An error of the former kind belongs properly to the thought; of the latter, to the language. The first, when habitual, is termed loguacity, the second, verboitly. The following is an instance of the second:—"On receiving this information, he arore, went out, mounted his horse, and rode to town." All is implied in saying, "On receiving this information, he rode to town."

b. There are many sentences, however, which would not bear the omission of a single word consistently with perspicuity, and yet, the same may be as clearly and much more concisely expressed by using different words, and recasting the whole sentence.

Example.—"A friend overrates the good actions of those to whom he is attached, and a man's wickedness is equally overstretched by his opponents." In this sentence, not one word could be omitted without sacrificing perspiculty, yet the whole would be more energetically, as well as more concisely expressed, by saying, "A friend exaggerates a man's virtues; an enemy, his crimes."

must be taken in the application of relatives, copulatives, and all the particles employed for transition and connection. As a general Rule, it may be observed, that in the same sentence there should be as few connectives as possible. (See 435.)

Some writers needlessly multiply demonstrative and relative particles, as in the following sentence:—"There is nothing which disgusts us sooner than the empty pump of language." In introducing a subject, or laying down a proposition, to which we demand particular attention, this sort of style is proper; but on common occasions, when no violation of any grammatical Rule will take place, we shall express ourselves more energetically by omitting the particles, thus, "Nothing disgusts us sooner than the empty pomp of language."

- b. Conjunctions are omitted when the connection in thought is either very remote, or very close, and especially when, in the latter case, we wish to pass from object to object with great rapidity. Thus, the expression of Caesar, "I came, I saw, I conquered," very properly denotes the celerity of his victorious
- c. By omitting the conjunctions, not only is vivacity increased, but sometimes a long sentence is advantageously broken into several smaller ones. "As the storm increased with the night, the sea was lashed into tremendous confusion, and there was a fearful, sullen sound of rushing waves and broken surges, while deep called unto deep." This sentence is better divided into several; thus, "The storm increased with the night. The sea was lashed into tremendous confusion. There was a fearful, sullen sound of rushing waves and broken surges. Deep called unto deep."
- 677. Rule 6.—a. CONJUNCTIONS REPEATED.—When we are making some enumeration, in which we wish the objects to appear as distinct from one another as possible, that the mind may rest, for a moment, on each, copulatives may be repeated with peculiar advantage; as, when an author says, "Such a man might fall a victim to power; but truth, and reason, and liberty, would fall with him."
- b. Ehert conjunctions are generally preferable to long ones; for this reason, noticitutionding that, intomuch that, forwarded as, furthermore, &c., are less frequently used at present than formerly.
- c. We should, as much as possible, avoid combining conjunctions of the same class. Of this kind are, but however, and further, yet nevertheless, &c.
- d. The words designed to mark the transition from one sentence to another are sometimes improperly employed. Thus, "By greatness I do not mean the bulk of any single object only, but the largeness of a whole view. Such are the prospects of an open champaign country, a vast uncultivated descriptive. The word such signifies of that nature or quality, which necessarily presupposes some adjective or word descriptive of a quality going before, to which it refers. But, in the foregoing sentence, there is no such adjective. The nuther had spoken of greatness in the abstract only; and, therefore, such has no distinct antecedent to which it can be referred. The sentence would have been better introduced by raying. To this class belong, or, under this head are arranged, the prospects, &c.
- 678. Rule 7.—a. In aiming at a Concise style, we must avoid rendering it too crowded. The frequent recurrence of ellipses, even when obscurity does not arise from them, gives to the composition the appearance of labour, which is offensive. We

may, indeed, avoid enumerating every particular, but we should endeavour to suggest more than we express.

- b. It is recommended, also, in cases in which we wish a permanent impression to be made on the mind, first, to expand the sentiment that it may be distinctly understood, and afterwards compress the whole in one short, pithy sentence.
- c. The hearers will thus be etruck by the forcibleness of the sentence which they will have been prepared to comprehend; they will understand the longer expression, and remember the shorter. The following extract from Burke's "Reflections on the Revolution in France," as quoted by Archbishop Whately, will serve to illustrate this Rule:—"Power, of some kind or other, will survive the shock in which manners and opinions perish; and it will find other and worse means for its support. The usurpation which, in order to subvert ancient institutions, has destroyed ancient principles, will hold power by arts similar to those by which it has acquired it. When the old feudal and chivalrous spirit of feally, which, by freeing kings from fear, freed both kings and subjects from the precaution of tyranny, shall be extinct in the minds of men, plots and assassinations will be anticipated by preventive murder and preventive confiscation; and that long roll of grim and bloody maxims, which form the political code of all power, not standing on its own honour, and the honour of those who are to obey it. Kings will be lyrants from policy, when subjects are rebels from principle."
- d. Conciseness does not exclude true Copiousness of language,—a copiousness which consists not in stringing together a multitude of mere synonyms and circumlocutions, but in employing a suitable expression for every different modification of thought. In this sense, therefore, the greater our command of language, the greater will be our conciseness.

3. The Arrangement of Words.

LESSONS 98. a. & b.—Exercises 98. a. & b.—Page 148.

L. 98. a. 679. a. The next thing conducive to the strength of a sentence is the Arrangement of words.

For, of two sentences, equally perspicuous, and consisting of the very same words, the one may be a feeble and languid, the other a striking and energetic expression, merely from the difference of arrangement.

b. The established Syntactical order observed in the structure of sentences, is, in general, the most appropriate for subjects addressed solely to the understanding; but the Rhetorical or Inverted order is best adapted to subjects addressed to the passions and imaginations of men.

EXAMPLES.—Syntactical Order.
Diana of the Ephesians is great.
The voice, the dance obey thee.

Rhelorical Order.
Great is Diana of the Ephesians.
Thee, the voice, the dance obey.

From the preceding examples it will be seen, that in the syntactical order, the subject or nominative, as previously stated, is placed first, then the verb, and lastly the object. The adjuncts, either of the subject, verb, or object, are placed in the clauses to which they respectively belong. This mode of construction prevails in our ordinary discourse. (See 318. f. g.)

In the Rhetorical order, the predicate, for the sake of energy, frequently precedes the verb. In this arrangement the principal object is, that the most important words shall be made to occupy that situation which shall produce the strongest impression. The subsequent remarks are intended to apply solely to the rhetorical construction.

680. Rule 8.—a. In the rhetorical arrangement of words in a sentence, the most important words should be placed in that situation in which they will make the strongest impression, and that is, generally, at the beginning of a sentence.

Thus, when the cripple who sat begging at the beautiful gate of the temple, carnestly looked on Peter and John, expecting to receive something from them, he was told by Peter, "Silver and gold have I none; but such as I have give I thee; in the name of Jesus Christ of Nazareth, rise up and walk." Here, the wishful look and expectation of the beggar, naturally led Peter to form a wirld conception of what was the object of the man's thoughts, and this conception as naturally displayed itself in the form of the declaration made by the upostle. Had he said, "I have no gold nor silver, but I give thee that which I have," the meaning would have been the same, but the expression would have been comparatively insiple. So, in Gen. xil. 12, the chief butler says, "Me he has restored to mine office, and him he hanged."

- b. Sometimes, however, the important clause, in order to sustain the reader's attention, is reserved to the conclusion; as, "On whatever side we contemplate Homer, what principally strikes us is, his wonderful invention."
- c. But, in whatever situation the principal words may be placed, they must always stand clear and disentangled. Circumstances, necessarily connected with the principal object, should be so arranged as not to obscure or encumber that object.

This is happliy effected in the following quotation, in which the author is comparing the modern poets with the nuclent. "If, whilst they profess only to please, they secretly advise and give instruction, they may now, perhaps, as well as formerly, be exteemed with justice the best and most honourable among authors." Here, the various qualifying circumstances are so indictously arranged, as neither to weaken nor embarrans the meaning; while the principal object, the character of the poets, appears in its proper place, clear and detached. The following is a different mrangement:—"If, whilst they profess to please only, they advise and give instruction secretly, they may be exteemed the best and most honourable among unthors, with justice, perhaps now, as well as formerly." Here, we have precisely the same words and the rame sense, but in consequence of the circumstances being so intermingled as to obscure the principal words, the whole becomes perplexed, and totally devoid of grace and strength. (Whately.)

681. Rule 9.—a. A weaker assertion or proposition should never follow a stronger one; but when it can be accomplished without affectation, the sentence should grow in importance as it approaches the end.

ExaMPLE—"If we rise yet higher," says Addison, "and consider the fixel stars as so many occase of fame, that are each of them attended with a different set of planets; and still discover new firmaments and new lights, that are sunk further in those unfathomable depths of other; we are lost in a labyrinth of suns and werlls, and confounded with the magnificence and immensity of nature."

5. When a sustance condits of two members, the larger should generally be the concluding one. Thus, to say, "When our passions have forraken us, we faster ourselves with the belief, that we have forraken them," is better than to say," We flatter ourselves with the belief, that we have forsaken our passions, when they have forsaken us."

- **1.98. b.**—Close of Sentences.—682. Rule 10.—a. As the mind generally rests a little upon the word concluding a sentence, that word should not, if possible, be an inconsiderable one, such as an adverb or preposition. Thus, it is better to say, "Avarice is a crime of which wise men are often guilty," than to say, "Avarice is a crime which wise men are often guilty of."
- 1. As prepositions principally serve to point out the relation of other words, it is disagreeable to be left, at the close of a sentence, pausing on a word which of itself does not produce any important idea, or present any striking image to the magination.—For the same reason, verbs which are compounded of one or more words and a preposition, are not considered as proper conclusions of a period; such as, bring about, lay hold of, come over to, clear up, &co., instead of which, a simple verb, when it can be used, always terminates the sentence with more strength.
- 2. Also, the pronoun it should not, if possible, be placed at the close of a sentence; especially when joined with some prepositions; as, with it, to it. Thus, the sentence, "I would humbly offer an amendment, that, instead of the word Christianity, may be put religion in general, which, I conceive, would much better answer all the good ends proposed by the projectors of it," would be better terminated, by saying, "proposed by its projectors."
- b. Besides particles and pronouns, any phrase expressing only a circumstance, should not be placed at the end of a sentence.

VIOLATION OF THE RULE.—"Let me, therefore, conclude by repeating, that division has caused all the mischief which we lament; that union alone can retrieve it; and that a great advance towards this union, was the coalition of parties, so happily begun, so successfully carried on, and, of late, so unaccountably neglected; to say no worse." The phrase, "to say no worse," ought not to have concluded the sentence, but ought to have been inserted in its own member; thus, "and of late, to say no worse, so unaccountably neglected."

- c. When, however, the stress and significancy of a sentence principally depend on certain particles, then, these particles must not be considered as mere circumstances, but must occupy a prominent situation in the sentence; thus, "In their prosperity, my friends shall never hear of me; in their adversity, always." Here, never and always, being emphatical words, are so placed, as to make the strongest impression.
- 683. Rule 11.—Antitheses, when judiciously and moderately employed, greatly contribute towards energy of expression; for every thing is rendered more striking by contrast. Truth becomes more evident when opposed to error, virtue to vice, knowledge to ignorance, &c.—The members of a sentence which express a contrast should be similarly constructed. (See 662.)

The following are two examples of the proper application of Antithesis. The subject of the first, is the Steam Engine; of the second, Poetry.

- 1. "It can engrave a seal, and crush masses of obdurate metal before it; draw out, without breaking, a thread as fine as gossamer, and lift up a ship of war like a bauble in the air. It can embroider muslin and forge anchors—cut steel into ribands, and impel loaded vessels against the fury of the winds and waves."
- "In the crowded city and howling wilderness; in the cultivated province and solitary itle; in the flowery lawn and craggy mountain; in the murmur of

the rivulet and in the uproar of the ocean; in the radiance of summer and gloom of winter; in the thunder of heaven and in the whisper of the breeze; he still finds something to rouse or soothe his imagination; to draw forth his affection and employ his understanding."

In the preceding Examples, there is not only an opposition of thought, but a proper balancing of the clauses. But this kind of writing must, as previously, observed, be introduced with judgment and caution, otherwise, it may produce disgust instead of pleasure. (See 570, 652.)

634. Rule 12.—Climax is another figure of speech, which, when sparingly and judiciously introduced, contributes to energy of expression. It must never be introduced, however, except it is the evident result of an excited mind labouring to make a strong impression as to the importance of its subject.

HARMONY OF EXPRESSION.

LESSON 99 .- Exercise 99 .- Page 152.

685. Harmony or Euphony in the structure of sentences implies a smooth and easy flow of words in respect to the sound. It requires that all coarse and homely expressions should be avoided, even at the risk of employing circumlocution.

Though Harmony or Euphony is of far less consequence than either Perspicuity or Energy, yet, when neither of these would be sacrificed, it ought not to be disregarded. For, noble ideas and forcible reasoning, conveyed in harmonious language, produce a stronger impression on the mind, than if transmitted by means of harsh and disagreeable sounds. But when Perspicuity or Energy is at variance with Harmony, the general Rule to be observed by the writer or speaker is, to prefer the perspicuous and energetic to the harmonious.

686. The observations to be made on this subject include— 1st, the choice of words; 2ndly, their arrangement; 3rdly, the length and construction of the members; and 4thly, the close or cadence of sentences.

687. Rule 1.—The Choice of Wonds.—Words which are difficult of pronunciation, should be avoided, if possible, as they are harsh and painful to the ear.

688, a. Long words are commonly more agreeable than monosyllables. They please the ear by the composition or succession of the sounds which they present; and, accordingly, harmonious languages abound most in them. Of words of any length, those are the most metadious which are formed of an intermiture of long and abort syllables; such as, define, relocity, independent, impensority.

8. Harmony of language is promoted by avoiding, as far as the sense will permit, the use of such words as the following:—1. Such as are composed of words already compounded, the several parts of which are not well united; as, "Unsacceptulaces, languagedness." 2. Such as have the syllables which immediately follow the accented syllable, crowded with consonants that do not easily coalesce; as, "Questionless, chousiers, executives." 2. Such as have too many syllables following the accented syllable; as, "Primarily, cursorily, permy trinien."

- 4. Such as have a recurrence of the same or of similar syllables: as, "Holily, sillily," 5. We should likewise avoid the frequent recurrence of words beginning with an aspirated h. The preceding Bules are sometimes violated by the poets, when some particular effect is to be produced; as was noticed under Poetical License, 533.
- c. In dignified composition, the abbreviations, i.e.; e.g.; vis.; and others of a similar kind, should be avoided.
- 689. The best Rule which can be given with respect to the choice of harmonious words is, never to make a direct effort after this kind of expression, but trust to the spontaneous occurrence of suitable words on every occasion on which they may be introduced with proper effect.
- 690. Rule 2.—THE ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.—It is necessary, also, in order to render the sentence harmonious, not only that the words should be well chosen, and well sounding, but that they should be properly arranged in the sentence.
- Thus, "Pleasures, simple and moderate, are always the best;" should be, "Simple and moderate pleasures are always the best." "A great recommendation of the guidance offered by integrity to us, is, that it is by all men easily understood;" better in this form, "It is a great recommendation of the guidance offered to us by integrity, that it is easily understood by all men."
- 691. To promote this harmonious arrangement of words, the following directions may be useful, when their observance would induce no sacrifice either of Perspicuity or Energy.
- 1. When the preceding word ends with a rovel, it is better that the subsequent one begin with a consonant; and so for the contrary; thus, "A true friend, a cruel enemy," are smoother and easier to the voice than "A true union, a cruel destroyer."

 —2. In general, a considerable number of long or short words near one another should be avoided. "Disappointment in our expectations is wretchedness;" better thus, "Disappointed hope is misery." "No course of joy can please us long;" better, "No course of enjoyment can please us long,"—A succession of words having the same quantity in the accented syllables, whether long or short, should also be avoided; thus, "James was needy, feeble, and fearful;" may be improved thus, "James was timid, feeble, and destitute." "He could not be happy; for he was simple, peetish, and sullen;" better thus, "He could not be happy; for he was simple, peevish, and gloomy."
- 3. In general, words either beginning or ending alike, must not meet together; and the last syllable of the preceding word should not be the same as the first syllable of the subsequent one. It is not so pleasing and harmonious to say, "This is a convenient contrivance;" "She behaves with uniform formality;" as, "This is a useful contrivance;" "She behaves with unvaried formality."
- 692. Rule 3.—The Length and Construction of the Members.—The members of a sentence should neither be too long, nor disproportionate to one another.

That order of words is generally more agreeable to the ear, and produces the strongest impression, in which, without obscuring the sense, the most important images, and the longest members, rise one above the other in a sort of increasing series, towards the close of the sentence.

The following is an instance of this kind of writing:—"When thine aching eye shall look forward to the end that is far disant; and when behind then shall find no retrent; when thy steps shall falter, and then shall tremble at the depth beneath, which thought itself is not able to fathom; then shall the angel of retribution lift his inexerable hand against thee; from the irremeable way shall thy feet be smitten; then shall plunge into the burning flood, and though thou shall live for ever, thou shalt rise no more."

The following quotation from Tillotson, is very different from the preceding rentence. "This discourse, concerning the casiness of the Divine commands, does all along suppose and acknowledge the difficulties of the first entrance upon a religious course; except only in those persons who have had the happiness to be trained up to religiou, by the easy and insensible degrees of a plous and virtuous coincution." This sentence is, in some degree, harsh and unpleasant; it contains no more than one considerable pause, which falls between the two members; and each of those members is so long, as to occasion a difficulty of breathing while it is pronounced.

693. Rule 4.—THE CLOSE OR CADENCE OF THE SENTENCE.—The close of a sentence must not be harsh or abrupt, because on this the mind pauses and rests. When we aim at dignity or elevation, the sound should be made to swell gradually to the end; the longest members of the period, and the fullest and most sonorous words, should be reserved for the conclusion.

The following sentence is constructed in this manner. "It fills the mind with the largest variety of ideas, converses with its objects at the greatest distance; and continues the longest in action, without being tired or satisfed with its proper enjoyments."

The following is a violation of this Rule. An anthor, speaking of the Trinity, expresses himself thus, "It is a mystery which we firmly believe the truth of, and humbly adore the depth of." The following arrangement is preferable:—"It is a mystery, the truth of which we firmly believe, and the depth of which we humbly adore."

- 694. a. Variety, however, must be observed both in the distribution of the members, and in the endence of the period; for, the mind soon tires with a frequent repetition of the same tone.
- b. In conclusion, though attention to the harmonious arrangement of words and members, and to the proper close of sentences, must not be neglected, yet, it must be confined within moderate bounds. For, perspiculty of style is essentially necessary in every kind of composition, and no harmony of words can atone for its deficiency.

THE PARAGRAPH, SEQUENCE AND CONNECTION OF SENTENCES.

695. The Paragraph.—Nearly every composition admits of several divisions and sub-divisions, each of which is occupied in the discussion of some branch belonging to the principal subject. These divisions are called Paragraphs, and are distinguished from one another by leaving off and commencing a new line. Each paragraph must contain only those sentences which belong to the same branch of the subject, and form an intimate connection in thought. (See 487.)

- 696. Sequence of Sentences.—The natural sequence of sentences forms one of the principal difficulties in the art of composition. The following will be advantageous as a General Rule,—The sentences belonging to the same paragraph should appear, as it were, to grow out of one another, forming a necessary part in the same train of reasoning. Sometimes, the second sentence contains an expansion of the sentiment included in the first. At other times, it discloses an additional fact or incident in the narrative, or an additional link in the chain of reasoning. In either case, the second sentence should form an appropriate sequel to the first, the third to the second, and so on to the conclusion of the paragraph.
- 697. Connection of Sentences.—In the connection of sentences with one another, care must be taken to avoid the use of unnecessary relatives and conjunctions. They cannot be altogether dispensed with; but the fewer there are employed, the better. In this respect, good taste and an harmonious ear will form the best guide. (See 676, 677.)
- 698. Having explained in the preceding Lessons the nature and importance of Figurative Language, Verbal Criticism, Perspicuity, Energy, and Harmony of Style, we now proceed to consider the remaining branches connected with this subject; namely—
 - I. Different Kinds of Style.
 - II. Preparatory Mode of Studying Style, with Specimens.
- III. Style at Different Periods.
- IV. Advantages of Good Models.
 - V. Original Composition.

L DIFFERENT KINDS OF STYLE.

LESSON 100. a.—Exercise 100. a.—Page 163.

- 600. Style may be considered under the four following heads:-
 - 1. With respect to the Arguments employed.
 - 2. With respect to the Number of Words.
 - 3. With respect to the Ornament employed.
 - 4. With respect to the particular Structure of the Sentences.
 - 1. Style with respect to the Arguments employed.
- 700. STYLE with respect to ARGUMENT comprises, 1. The Forcible Style; 2. The Vehement Style; 3. The Feeble Style; and 4. The Languid Style.
- 1. The Forethee Style denotes that plain, distinct, and impressive manner of writing which an author, firmly persuaded of the truth and importance of what he says, and deeply interested in his subject, employs to impart to his readers the same views and feelings as he has himself. The arguments introduced are those of a vigorous and well-disciplined mind,—sound, convincing, and admirably adapted to the subject under discussion.
- 2. THE VEHEMENT STYLE.—When, to sound and convincing arguments, distinctly and forcibly exhibited, is added a highly excited state of feeling, Vehencuce of Style is the result.
- 3. THE FEEBLE STYLE indicates a want of strength of reasoning.
- 4. The Languid Style shows a want of feeling and excitement on the subject.
 - 2. Style with respect to the Number of Words.
- 701. Style with respect to the NUMBER OF WORDS comprises, 1. The Concise Style; and 2. The Diffuse Style.
- 1. The Concise Style is that in which a writer expresses his thoughts in the fewest possible words, employing only such terms as are the most expressive, and which add something material to the sense. He rarely presents the reader with the same thought twice. Having placed it in the light which appears the most striking, if not well apprehended in that light, it is not to be expected in any other. Whatever ornament is introduced, is employed more for the sake of force

than of grace. In the structure of his sentences, strength and compactness are regarded, rather than harmony and cadence.

- 2. a. THE DIFFUSE STYLE is that in which a writer fully unfolds his thoughts. He places them in a variety of lights, and gives the reader every possible assistance for understanding them completely. He is not very solicitous to express them at first in their full strength, because he intends repeating the impression; what therefore he wants in strength, he proposes to supply by copiousness.
- b. If we wish to strike the fancy or move the heart, we must be concise; but when we desire to inform the understanding, which moves more slowly, and requires the assistance of a guide, we should be full. Discourses that are spoken require a more copious style than books that are to be read.

3. Style with respect to the Ornament employed.

- 702. Style with respect to Ornament comprises, 1. The Dry or Barren Style; 2. The Plain Style; 3. The Neat Style; 4. The Elegant or Graceful Style; and 5. The Florid Style.
- 1. THE DRY OF BARREN STYLE excludes ornament of every kind. Content with being understood, it aims at pleasing neither the fancy nor the ear. This style is tolerable only in pure didactic writing; and even then, whatever may be the goodness of the matter, the dryness of the style fatigues the attention, and conveys our sentiments with disadvantage to the reader or hearer.
- 2. THE PLAIN STYLE.—A Plain Style rises a degree above a dry one. An author who writes in this style, attends to purity, propriety, and precision in his language, but employs very little ornament. Though he does not seek to engage us by any harmonious arrangement of language, or striking ornaments, yet, he avoids disgusting us like a dry and harsh writer.
- 3. a. The Neat Style.—In the neat style, a writer attends to the choice of words, and to a graceful collocation of them, rather than to any high efforts of imagination or eloquence. His sentences are of a moderate length, free from superfluous words, and terminate with propriety. His figures, if he uses any, are short and correct, rather than hold and glowing. Such a style as this is always agreeable; and may by mere industry and careful attention to the rules of Grammar and Composition, be attained by a writer who does not possess great powers of fancy or genius.—b. A familiar letter, or a law paper on the driest subject, may be written with neatness; and a sermon or a philosophical treatise, in a neat style, will be read with pleasure.

- 4. THE ELEGANT STYLE .- An Elegant or Graceful Stylo possesses a higher degree of ornament than a neat one; and, indeed, is the term usually applied to style, when it possesses all the beauties of ornament without any of its excesses or defects. In this style, the words employed are the most appropriate which could have been selected; the members of each sentence are so agreeably united as to reflect beauty on each other; and their arrangement is so happily disposed, as not to admit the least transposition without manifest prejudice. The thoughts, the metaphore, the allusions, and the diction, are easy and natural, and rise like so many spontaneous productions, rather than the effects of art or labour. In a word, an elegant writer is one who pleases the fancy and the ear, while he informs the understanding; and conveys his ideas, clothed with all the beauty of expression, but not overcharged with any of its misplaced finery.
 - 5. The Florid Style is that in which the ornaments are too rich and gaudy for the subject, return too fast, or strike us with a dazzling lustre or a false brilliancy.
 - 4. Style with respect to the particular Structure of the Sentences.
 - 703. Style with respect to the SIBUCTURE OF THE SINTENCES, comprises, 1. The Idiomatic and Easy Style; 2. The Laboured Style; 3. The Natural Style; 4. The Elevated Style; and 5. The Dignified Style.
 - 1. THE IDIOMATIC and EAST STYLE.—By an Idiomatic Style is meant that kind of writing, in which the rules of purity and propricty in the use of words and phrases, and clearness and unity in the structure of sentences, are strictly observed. An Idiomatic Style is, therefore, always correct in construction, and so perspicuous in meaning, as to require no labour to be fully understood.

The Idiomatic Style must, of course, be raried according to the nature of the subject and the particular occasion; as, in conversation, we employ one mode of expression to represent gay and lively subjects, and another mode to represent grave ones.

2. THE LIEUURED STYLE is the very reverse of the easy and idiomatic style, as it appears the result of great effort on the part of the writer, and requires close attention from the reader to be clearly understood. In this style, the arrangement of the words and clauses is frequently interfed, and the whole composition of the sentences is artificial. A laboured style, when carried to excess, is very faulty.

3. THE NATURAL STYLE.—The Natural Style implies that choice of words, construction of sentences, and introduction of ornament, which sound sense and good taste allow to be hest adapted to the subject. Hence, the natural style is opposed to every species of affectation.

By the term Naturalness of Style is not meant that style which is merely suited to the intellectual habits and attainments of an author, whatever these may be, but that standard which exists in the mind of every man whose taste is not perverted and vitiated.

Naturalness of style is not confined to any particular species of writing. It is found alike in the most artless narrations, and in the most elevated descriptions; in the story adapted to the comprehension of a child, and in the sublime raptures of the greatest poets.

- 4. THE ELEVATED STYLE.—In the Elevated Style, there is much of originality and sublimity of thought, combined with a calm but powerful feeling; and the words and ornaments employed are admirably adapted to convey the feelings and sentiments of the writer. The sentences, in their construction, are full and flowing; but, at the same time, simple and unlaboured. No weak or unimportant thoughts are admitted, but the whole has a majesty and grandeur which, with quiet but resistless power, hold their undisturbed and even way.
- 5. a. The Dignified Style differs from the Elevated Style, principally in its want of ease and naturalness. Learned or uncommon words are frequently introduced; the construction of the sentences, instead of being idiomatic, is characterized by the frequent inversion of the clauses; and the whole composition has the appearance of stateliness and formality.—In its ornaments, which are always of a high order, the sprightly metaphor and the well-timed allusion are rejected for the protracted allegory and formal comparison. But the images thus brought to the mind are not only illustrative, but frequently ennobling and exalting.
 - b. Table of a few Authors arranged according to Style.
- Numb. of Words:—Concise. Bacon, in gen., but elaborate and sententious.
 Diffuse. Addison, Burke.
- 2. Ornam. employed: Plain.

Adam Smith, Middleton, Blackstone.

Elegant.

Addison, Dryden, Pope, Melmoth, Cowper, Southey, Dr. Johnson, Hume, Gibbon.

2. Structure: Idiomalic. {Goldsmith, Addison, Swift, De Foc, Paley, Professor Wilson, of Blackwood's Magazine.

LESSON 100. b .- Exercise 100. b .- Page 163.

Different Kinds of Style-continued.

- 704. Style may also be considered under the three following kinds:—1. The Natural or Simple Style; 2. The Elegant Style; and 3. The Sublime Style.
- 705.—1. a. In the NATURAL or SIMPLE STYLE, the words employed are plain and well adapted to the subject; the sentences are either short or of moderate length, carefully constructed with regard to perspicuity, and arranged in the natural order of succession. The Figurative Language employed is such as can readily be understood, and is evidently suitable for illustrating the subject.
- b. Dr. Arnold of Rugby states in his Life, that he had so habituated himself to an unambitious and plain way of writing, and absence of Latin words as much as possible, that he could not write otherwise without manifest affectation; that though he heartily admired richness of style, he could not attain to it for lack of power. If such was the conviction of a man of Arnold's grasp of mind, what ought to be the opinion of the generality of men?
- c. Many pleasing examples of this style occur in the writings of Addison. Of these may be mentioned his description of "Bir Roger de Coverley," his "Refections in Westminster Abbry," his essays on "Cheerinhess," "Trust in God," "The Fear of God," "A Good Covelence," "Habitual Good Intentions," &c. In the Bible, the untrative of Joseph and his brethren, recorded in Genesis, is another instance of this style.
- 706.—2. a. THE ELEGANT STYLE is adapted to important subjects which require a dignified manner of expression, such as History, Biography, delineation of Character, Oratory, Politics, Morals, and Criticism. In this style, the most graceful words, the most forcible epithets, the greatest exactness in the structure of the sentences, and the highest ornaments of Figurative Language may be employed.
- Many specimens of this style occur in the writings of Dr. Robertson, Sir Washington Irving, Durke, Lord Jeffrey, Dean Stanley, and Mr. Provde.
- 707.—3. a. The Sublime Style, the highest species of Composition, consists in expressing grand conceptions respecting sublime objects with simplicity, conciseness, and strength. It requires a judicious selection of only the most important circumstances respecting the object of description, expressed in words the most appropriate and sonorous. The description must be concise, the sentences well-constructed, and the figures introduced for illustration must consist of the most striking metaphors. Nothing superfluous, trivial, or bombastical must be admitted.

b. The objects calculated for exciting sublime lieus are. The various attributes of the Point; The great objects of Nature; as, the firmament of bearing, the

boundless ocean, extensive plains, lofty mountains, unfathomable abyeser, and awful precipices; Darkness, solitude, silence, and obscurity; Objects implying mighty and uncontrollable force; as, eartbquakes, thunder, lightning, tempests, storms on the ocean, burning mountains, overflowing waters; The engagement of two great armies, the roar of cannon, the shouting of vast multitudes; also Human Actions which exhibit great magnanimity and heroism.

- c. Several instances of the Sublime Style in writing occur in the Scriptures; as, in Gen. i. 3; in Isalah xliv. 24 to 28; in Psalm xviii. 6 to 16; in Job iv. 15 to 17. Many instances also occur in Milton's "Paradise Lost."
- 708. Mental Qualities necessary for the formation of a Good Style.—A Good Style will depend on the possession of the following,—I. A lively Imagination to suggest ideas and form new combinations. 2. A retentive Memory to recall facts, relations, and illustrations which may be required. 3. A sound Judgment to employ only the most suitable arguments. And 4. A correct Taste to use such language and such ornaments of style as are best adapted to instruct the understanding and influence the will.
- 709. The Faults in Style to be avoided are,—1. Affectation of excellence; 2. Obscurity; 3. Verbosity; 4. Harshness; 5. Sameness; 6. Puerility; 7. Quaintness; 8. Bombast.
 - 1. Affectation is the use of unnatural epithets and fantastic ornaments.
- 2. Obscurity arises from the want of clear conceptions of the subject, by which we either employ unsuitable words or make a wrong arrangement of them.
- 3. Verboily is the use of superfluous words, such as pleonasms, unmeaning epithets, and tautological expressions.
- 4. Hardiness consists in the use of obsolete words and inharmonious constructions.
- 5. Sameness is that uniformity of expression and arrangement by which composition becomes tedious and disagreeable.
- 6. Puerility is an affectation of fine writing by using synonymous terms, or high-sounding words, which either have no meaning or are quite unsuitable to the subject.
- 7. Quaintness employs either odd or unusual language to express far fetched thoughts, or dazzling antitheses to set off witty sentiments.
- 8. Bombast is the use of elaborate diction or pompous phraseology to express common thoughts.

II. PREPARATORY MODE OF STUDYING STYLE.

LESSON 101.-Exercise 101.-Page 163.

- 710. a. The Meaning and Anguients.—Carefully read the whole specimen or chapter, that you may have a distinct perception of the author's meaning.—In argumentative composition, consider whether the arguments advanced are correct and suitable; in descriptive or narrative pieces, whether the observations are appropriate and the facts really substantiated. Notice the effect produced on your own mind by the author's reasoning or description. From a consideration of these particulars, state whether the style of the composition is forcible or otherwise.
- b. Next, let attention be paid to the order in which the sentiments, arguments, or incidents are placed. Observe how the whole is broken into paragraphs.
- 711. a. Choice and Number of Words.—Next observe whether the words employed are pure Saxon or not; and to what extent the author's meaning has, by this means, gained or lost in expressiveness.
- b. With regard to the number of words, notice to what extent energy of style has been secured by the concise or diffuse mode of expression adopted by the writer.

State to what class the specimen belongs.

- 712. a. STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.—In the structure of the sentences, notice the position which the clauses respectively occupy, whether the construction is regular or inverted, and to what extent this has contributed to the development of the sense intended. Notice whether the cadence or close of the sentences is easy and agreeable or otherwise.
- b. In the eequence of the sentences, notice whether the order is natural and easy, or to what extent it might be improved. Notice also, how the connection between the parts has been effected.
 - c. Classify the specimen with regard to structure.
- 713. c. ORNAMENT EMPLOYED.—State what degree of ornament is employed; whether the propriety of the respective figures is well suctained;—and what impression it produces on the mind.
 - è. Classify the specimen with regard to ernament.
- 714. Reproduce the specimen or chapter from recollection. Afterwards institute a comparison between the two.

SPECIMENS OF STYLE.

715. Specimen 1. The Means of strengthening Faith.—Addison.

As nothing is more laudable than an inquiry after truth, so nothing is more irrational than to pass away our whole lives, without determining ourselves one way or other, in those points which are of the last importance to us. There are, indeed, many things from which we may withhold our assent; but, in cases by which we are to regulate our lives, it is the greatest absurdity to be wavering and unsettled, without closing with that side which appears the most safe and the most probable. The first rule, therefore, which I shall lay down is this; that when, by reading or discourse, we find ourselves thoroughly convinced of the truth of any article, and of the reasonubleness of our belief in it, we should never after suffer ourselves to call it in question. We may, perhaps, forget the arguments which occasioned our conviction, but we ought to remember the strength they had with us, and therefore still to retain the conviction which they produced. This is no more than what we do in . every common art or science: nor is it possible to act otherwise, considering the weakness and limitation of our intellectual faculties. It was thus that Latimer, one of the glorious army of martyrs, who introduced the Reformation into England, behaved himself in that great conference which was managed between the most learned among the Protestants and Papists in the reign of Queen Mary. This venerable old man, knowing his abilities were impaired by age, and that it was impossible for him to recollect all those reasons which had directed him in the choice of his religion, left his companions who were in the full possession of their parts and learning. to baffle and confound their antagonists by the force of reason. As for himself, he only repeated to his adversaries the articles in which he firmly believed, and in the profession of which he was determined to die. It is in this manner that the mathematician proceeds upon propositions, which he has once demonstrated; and though the demonstration may have slipped out of his memory, he builds upon the truth, because he knows it was demonstrated. absolutely necessary for weaker minds, and in some measure for men of the greatest abilities; but to these last I would propose, in the second place, that they should lay up in their memories, and always keep by them in readiness, those arguments which appear to them of the greatest strength, and which cannot be got over by all the doubts and cavils of infidelity.

716. Speciales 2. Election of Rodolph of Hapehurg .- Hallam.

LESSON 102. Exercise 102. - Page 164.

A short interval elapsed after the death of Richard of Cornwall, before the electors could be induced, by the deplorable state of confusion into which Germany had fallen, to fill the imperial throne. Their choice was however the best that could have been made. It fell upon Rodolph count of Hapsburg, a prince of very ancient family, and of considerable possessions as well in Switzerland as upon each bank of the Upper Rhine, but not sufficiently powerful to alarm the electoral oligarchy. Rodolph was brave, active, and just; but his characteristic quality appears to have been good sense, and judgment of the circumstances in which he was placed. Of this he gave a signal proof in relinquishing the favourite project of so many preceding emperors, and leaving Italy altogether to itself. At home he manifested a vigilant spirit in administering justice, and is said to have destroyed seventy strongholds of noble robbers in Thuringia and other parts, bringing many of the criminals to capital punishment. But he wisely avoided giving offence to the more powerful princes; and during his reign, there were hardly any rebellions in Germany.

It was a very reasonable object of every emperor to aggrandize his family by investing his near kindred with vacant fiels; but no one was so fortunate in his opportunities as Rodolph. At his accession, Austria, Styria, and Carniola were in the hands of Ottocar. king of Bohemia. These extensive and fertile countries had been formed into a march or margraviate, after the victories of Otho the Great over the Hungarians. Frederic Barbarossa erected them into a duchy, with many distinguished privileges, especially that of female succession, hitherto unknown in the feudal principalities of Germany. Upon the extinction of the house of Bamberg, which had enjoyed this duchy, it was granted by Frederic II. to a cousin of his own name; after whose death a disputed succession gave rise to several changes, and ultimately enabled Ottocar to gain possess. sion of the country. Against this king of Boltemis, Rodolph waged two successful wars, and recovered the Austrian provinces, which, as vacant fiels, he conferred, with the consent of the diet, upon his ron Albert.

Notwithstanding the merit and popularity of Rodolph, the electors refused to choose his son king of the Romans in his lifetime; and, after his death, determined to avoid the appearance of Levelitary succession, put Adolphus of Nassau upon the throne.

717. Specimen 3. Oliver Cromwell.-Lord Macaulay.

LESSON 103.—Exercise 103.—Page 164.

The soul of that party was Oliver Cromwell. Bred to peaceful occupations, he had, at more than forty years of age, accepted a commission in the parliamentary army. No sooner had he become a soldier than he discerned, with the keen glance of genius, what Essex and men like Essex, with all their experience, were unable to perceive. He saw precisely where the strength of the Royalists lay, and by what means alone that strength could be overpowered. He saw that it was necessary to reconstruct the army of the Parliament. He saw also that there were abundant and excellent materials for the purpose, materials less showy indeed, but more solid. than those of which the gallant squadrons of the king were composed. It was necessary to look for recruits who were not mere mercenaries, for recruits of decent station and grave character, fearing God and zealous for public liberty. With such men he filled his own regiment, and, while he subjected them to a discipline more rigid than had ever before been known in England, he administered to their intellectual and moral nature stimulants of fearful potency.

The events of the year 1644 fully proved the superiority of his abilities. In the south, where Essex held the command, the parliamentary forces underwent a succession of shameful disasters; but in the north, the victory of Marston Moor fully compensated for all that had been lost elsewhere. That victory was not a more serious blow to the Royalists than to the party which had hitherto been dominant at Westminster; for it was notorious that the day, disgracefully lost by the Presbyterians, had been retrieved by the energy of Cromwell, and by the steady valour of the warriors whom he had trained.

These events produced the Self-denying Ordinance and the new model of the army. Under decorous pretexts, and with every mark of respect, Essex and most of those who had held high posts under him were removed; and the conduct of the war was intrusted to very different hands. Fairfax, a brave soldier, but of mean understanding and irresolute temper, was the nominal Lord General of the forces; but Cromwell was their real head.

718. Specimen 4. Seriousness in Religion indispensable.— Paley's Sermone.

LESSON 104.—Exercise 104.—Page 164.

The general course of Education is much against religious scriousness, even without those who conduct education foreseeing or intending any such effect. Many of us are brought up with this world set before us, and nothing else. Whatever promotes this world's prosperity is praised; whatever hurts and obstructs and prejudices this world's prosperity is blamed: and there all praise and censure end. We see mankind about us in motion and action, but all these motions and actions directed to worldly objects. We hear their conversation, but it is all the same way. And this is what we see and hear from the first. The views which are continually placed before our eyes regard this life alone and its interests. Can it then be wondered at that an early worldly-mindedness is bred in our hearts, so strong as to shut out heavenly-mindedness entirely? In the contest which is always carrying on between this world and the next, it is no difficult thing to see what advantage this world has. One of the greatest of these advantages is, that it pre-occupies the mind: it gets the first hold and the first possession. Childhood and youth, left to themselves, are necessarily guided by sense; and sense is all on the side of this world. Meditation brings us to look towards a future life; but then meditation comes afterwards: it comes when the mind is already filled and engaged and occupied, nay, often crowded and surcharged with worldly ideas. It is not only, therefore, fair and right, but it is absolutely necessary to give to religion all the advantage we can give it by dint of elucation; for all that can be done is too little to set religion upon an equality with its rival; which rival is the world. A creature which is to pass a small portion of its existence in one state, and that state to be preparatory to another, ought, no doubt, to have its attention constantly fixed upon its ulterior and permanent destination. And this would be so if the question between them came fairly before the mind. We should listen to the Scriptures, no should embrace religion, we should enter into everything which had relation to the subject, with a concern and impression, even for more than the pursuits of this world, enger and arlent as they are, excite. But the question between religion and the world does not come fairly before us. What surrounds us in this world; what addresses our senses and our passions in this world; what is at band, what is in contact with us, what was upon us, what we est

upon, is this world. Reason, faith, and hope are the only principles to which religion applies, or possibly can apply: and it is reason, faith, and hope, striving with sense, striving with temptation, striving for things absent against things that are present. That religion, therefore, may not be entirely excluded and overborne, may not quite sink under these powerful causes, every support ought to be given to it, which can be given by education, by instruction, and, above all, by the example of those, to whom young persons look up, acting with a view to future life themselves.

But, further, the world, even in its innocent pursuits and pleasures, has a tendency unfavourable to the religious sentiment. But were these all it had to contend with, the strong application which religion makes to the thoughts whenever we think of it at all, the strong interest which it presents to us, might enable it to overcome and prevail in the contest. But there is another adversary to oppose much more formidable; and that is sensuality; an addiction to sensual pleasures. It is the flesh which lusteth against the spirit; that is the war which is waged within us. So it is, no matter what may be the cause, that sensual indulgences, over and above their proper criminality, as sins, as offences against God's commands, have a specific effect upon the heart of man in destroying the religious principle within him; or still more surely in preventing the formation of that principle. It either induces an open profaneness of conversation and behaviour, which scorns and contemns religion; a kind of profligacy, which rejects and sets at nought the whole thing; or it brings upon the heart an averseness to the subject, a fixed dislike and reluctance to enter upon its concerns in any way That a resolved sinner should set himself against a religion which tolerates no sin, is not to be wondered at. He is against religion, because religion is against the course of life upon which he has entered, and which he does not feel himself willing to give up. But this is not the whole, nor is it the bottom of the matter. The effect we allude to is not so reasoning and argumentative as this. It is a specific effect upon the mind. The heart is rendered unsusceptible of religious impressions, incapable of a serious regard to religion. And this effect belongs to sins of sensuality more than to other sins. It is a consequence which almost universally follows from them.

719. Specimen 5. First Landing of Columbus in the New World.—Washington Irving.

LESSON 105.—Exercise 105.—Page 164.

It was on Friday morning, the 12th of October, 1492, that Columbus first beheld the New World. As the day dawned he saw before him a level island, several leagues in extent, and covered with trees like a continual orchard. Though apparently uncultivated, it was populous, for the inhabitants were seen issuing from all parts of the woods and running to the shore. They were perfectly naked, and, as they stood gazing at the ships, appeared by their attitude and gestures to be lost in astonishment. Columbus made signals for the ships to cast anchor, and the boats to be manned and armed. He entered his own boat, richly attired in scarlet, and holding the royal standard; whilst Martin Alonzo Pinzon, and Vincent Yañez his brother, put off in company in their boats, each with a banner of the enterprise emblazoned with a green cross; having on each side the letters F. and Y., the initials of the Castilian monarchs Fernando and Ysabel, surmounted by crowns.

As he approached the shore, Columbus, who was disposed for all kinds of agreeable impressions, was delighted with the purity and suavity of the atmosphere, the crystal transparency of the sea, and the extraordinary beauty of the vegetation. He beheld, also, fruit of an unknown kind upon the trees which overhung the shores. On landing, he threw himself on his knees, kissed the earth, and returned thanks to God with tears of joy. His example was followed by the rest, whose hearts indeed overflowed with the same feelings of gratitude. Columbus, then rising, drew his sword, displayed the royal standard, and assembling round him the two captains, with Rodrigo de Escobedo, notary of the armament, Rodrigo Sanchez, and the rest who had landed, he took solemn possession in the name of the Castilian sovereigns, giving the island the name of San Salvador. Having complied with the requisite forms and ceremonies, he called upon all present to take the oath of obedience to him, as admiral and vicercy representing the persons of the sovereigns.

The feelings of the crew now burst forth in the most extravagant transports. They had recently considered themselves devoted men hurrying forward to destruction; they now looked upon themselves as favourites of fortune, and gave themselves up to the most unbounded joy. They througed around the admiral with overflowing real, some embracing him, others kissing his hands. These who had been most mutiness and turbulent during the veyage, were now

most devoted and enthusiastic. Some begged favours of him, as if he had already wealth and honours in his gift. Many abject spirits, who had outraged him by their insolence, now cronehed at his feet, begging pardon for all the trouble they had caused him, and promising the blindest obedience for the future.

The natives of the island, when, at the dawn of day, they had beheld the ships hovering on their coast, had supposed them monsters which had issued from the deep during the night. crowded to the beach, and watched their movements with awful anxiety. Their veering about, apparently without effort, and the shifting and furling of their sails, resembling huge wings, filled them with astonishment. When they beheld their boats approach the shore, and a number of strange beings clad in glittering steel, or raiment of various colours, landing upon the beach, they fled in affright to the woods. Finding, however, that there was no attempt to pursue nor molest them, they gradually recovered from their terror, and approached the Spaniards with great awe; frequently prostrating themselves on the earth, and making signs of adoration. During the ceremonies of taking possession, they remained gazing in timid admiration of the complexion, the beards, the shining armour, and splendid dress of the Spaniards. The admiral particularly attracted their attention, from his commanding height, his air of anthority, his dress of scarlet, and the deference which was paid him by his companions; all which pointed him out to be the commander. When they had still further recovered from their fears, they approached the Spaniards, tonched their beards, and examined their hands and faces, admiring their whiteness. Columbus was pleased with their gentleness and confiding simplicity, and suffered their scrutiny with perfect acquiescence, winning them by his benignity. They now supposed that the ships had sailed ont of the crystal firmament which bounded their horizon, or had descended from above on their ample wings, and that these marvellous beings were inhabitants of the skies.

720. Specimen 6. The Inefficacy of Genius without Learning.—
Dr. Johnson.

LESSON 106.—Exercise 106.—Page 164.

The direction of Aristotle to those that study politics is, first to examine and understand what has been written by the ancients npon government; then to cast their eyes round npon the world, and consider by what causes the prosperity of communities is visibly influenced, and why some are worse and others better administered.

The same method must be pursued by him who hopes to become eminent in any other part of knowledge. The first task is to search books, the next is to contemplate nature. He must first possess himself of the intellectual treasures which the diligence of former ages has accumulated, and then endeavour to increase them by his own collections.

The mental disease of the present generation is impatience of study, contempt of the great masters of ancient wisdom, and a disposition to rely wholly upon unassisted genius and natural sagacity. The wits of these happy days have discovered a way to fame, which the dull caution of our laborious ancestors durst never attempt; they cut the knots of sophistry which it was formerly the business of years to untie, solve difficulties by sudden irradiations of intelligence, and comprehend long processes of argument by immediate intuition. Men who have flattered themselves into this opinion of their abilities, look down on all those who waste their lives over books, as a race of inferior beings, condemned by nature to perpetual pupilage, and fruitlessly endeavouring to remedy their barrenness by incessant cultivation, or succour their feebleness by subsidiary strength.

They presume that none would be more industrious than they, if they were more sensible of deficiencies; and readily conclude, that he who places no confidence in his own powers, owes his modesty only to his weakness.

It is, however, certain, that no estimate is more in danger of crroneous calculations than those by which a man computes the force of his own genius. It generally happens at our entrance into the world, that, by the natural attraction of similitude, we associate with men like ourselves, young, sprightly, and ignorant, and rate our accomplishments by comparison with theirs: when we have once obtained an acknowledged superiority over our acquaintances, imagination and desire easily extend it over the rest of mankind; and if no accident forces us into new emulations, we grow old, and die in admiration of ourselves.

Vanity, thus confirmed in her dominion, readily listens to the voice of idleness, and soothes the slumber of life with continual dreams of excellence and greatness. A man, clated by confidence in his natural vigour of fancy and sagacity of conjecture, soon concludes that he already possesses whatever toil and inquiry may confer. He then listens with engerness to the wild objections which folly has mised against the common means of improvement; talks of the dark chaos of indigested knowledge; describes the mischievons effects of heterogeneous sciences fermenting in the mind; relates the blunders

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of lettered ignorance; expaniates on the heroic merit of those who deviate from prescription, or shake off authority; and gives vent to the inflations of his heart by declaring that he owes nothing to pedants and universities.

All these pretensions, however confident, are very often vain. The laurels which superficial acuteness gains in triumphs over ignorance unsupported by vivacity, are observed by Locke to be lost, whenever real learning and rational diligence appear against her; the sallies of gaiety are soon repressed by calm confidence; and the artifices of subtlety are readily detected by those, who, having carefully studied the question, are not easily confounded or surprised.

To the strongest and quickest mind it is far easier to learn than to invent. The principles of Arithmetic and Geometry may be comprehended by a close attention in a few days; yet who can flatter himself that the study of a long life would have enabled him to discover them, when he sees them yet unknown to so many nations, whom he cannot suppose less liberally endowed with natural reason than the Grecians or Egyptians?

III. STYLE AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

LESSON 107. a .- Exercise 107. a .- Page 164.

- 721. a. The subjoined is a Brief Explanation of the General Characteristics of English Style at different Periods, with the Names of the principal Authors, and such of their productions as are considered the most important.
- b. There are Six Periods in English Literature which have had a marked influence on our Style and Thought.

722. FIRST PERIOD.

The Reigns of Elizabeth, James I. and Charles I .- 1558 to 1649.

a. The invention of Printing, the study of Classical Literature, the translation of the Holy Scriptures into the vulgar tongue by Coverdale in 1535, and by Cranmer and others in 1539, together with the freedom with which religion had been discussed for several years previous to the commencement of Elizabeth's reign, had paved the way for a manner of thinking and a mode of expression altogether original and energetic. This mental activity and thirst for knowledge received a considerable impetus after the accession of Elizabeth, by the wide dissemination of the translation of the Bible printed at Genevaand published in 1560, and the version called the Bishops' Bible, published in 1568.—In 1611, in the reign of James I., the present Authorized Version of the Scriptures was published. This translation was the result of the united labours, for three years, of forty-seven of the most eminent Classical and Oriental scholars of that age, and is the only one in common use not only in Great Britain and its Colonies, but in the United States of America. The influence which it has exercised both on religion and literature is immense. Its Vocabulary, with the exception of proper names and terms not in their nature translatable, consists of words which are mostly of native growth, The Style is simple and idiomatic.

The prevailing Style of the chief writers of this Period may be characterized as forcible and often elevated, but, at the same time, harsh, laboured, and, in many, antithetical. Its great intellectual luminaries were Shakepeare and Spenser, Hooker and Bacon. (See 264, 265.)

In speaking of this period, Lord Joffrey rays; "It is by far the mich tiest in the history of Emplish Literature, or, infect, of human intellect and expectity. There mere was annihing like the risty or seventy years that clapsed from the militie of Elizabeth's reign to the period of the Restoration. In point of rest force and criminality of pening, neither the are of Periodes, nor the age of Augustus, nor the times of Leo X. nor of Louis XIV., can some at all this companion; for, in that their period, we shall find the names of almost all the very stream men that this nation has ever produced, the names of Shaliyears and

Bacon, Spenser and Sidney, Hooker and Taylor, Barrow and Raleigh, Napier and Hobbes, and many others; men, all of them, not merely of great talents and accomplishments, but of vast compass and reach of understanding, and of minds truly creative and original; not perfecting art by the delicacy of their taste, or digesting knowledge by the justness of their reasonings, but making vast and substantial additions to the materials upon which taste and reason must hereafter be employed, and enlarging, to an incredible and unparalleled extent, both the stores and resources of the human faculties."

c. The following are the principal writers of this Period; the names of their chief works will occasionally in this volume be denoted by c. w. prefixed.

Poets—Non-Dramatic:—Edmund Spenser, b. 1553, d. 1598; c. w. "The Faerie Queene," an allegory in which the abstract idea of Glory is personified, with twelve attendant knights, representing twelve virtues.

This work originally consisted of twelve books, of which six are lost. Each of the six extant books contains twelve cantos, and is devoted to the adventures of a particular knight, who personifies a certain virtue; as, Holiness, Temperance, &c. Every incident is significant of some moral truth or of some moral danger which besets the path of man. The Versification of the whole is in a peculiar Stanza of nine lines, in imitation of the Italian of Ariosto and Tasso, and called in English the Spenserian; the Diction is antiquated. Spenser also wrote another work, called "The Shepherd's Calendar," and several sonnets. (See 754.)

The Chief Secondary Poets are:—1. Sir Philip Sidney, b. 1554, d. 1586, c. w. "Arcadia," an allegorical romance, in which pastoral incidents are related in proso and interspersed with several pieces in verse.—2. Michael Draylon, b. 1563, d. 1631, c. w. The "Poly-Olbion," a topographical description of England in verse.—3. Sir John Denham, b. 1616, d. 1658, c. w. "Cooper's Hill."—4. Francis Quarles, b. 1592, d. 1644, c. w. "Moral Emblems."—5. Dr. John Donne, b. 1573, d. 1631, well known as the principal of the so-called Metaphysical Poets.—6. Giles Fletcher, b. 1580, d. 1623, was a writer of serious poetry.

d. Dramatists:—William Shakspeare, b. 1564, d. 1616, was by far the greatest poet not only of his own but of every other age. He wrote thirty-five plays, of which the principal are his Historical Plays, and his four great Tragedies of Othello, Hamlet, Lear, and Macbeth. He wrote also many miscellaneous poems.

"No man," says Hallam, "ever came near Shakspeare in the creative powers of the mind; no man had ever such strength at once, and such variety of imagination." Every character of his dramns speaks and acts for himself, and as he ought to speak and act." (See 755.)

The Dramatists next to Shakspeare are:—1. Ben Jonson, b. 1574, d. 1637, who wrote many tragedles and comedies.—2. George Chapman, b. 1557, d. 1634, wrote several comedies, and translated Homer into English Verse.—3. Francis Beaumont, b. 1686, d. 1615, wrote many comedies and tragedles in conjunction with (4) John Fletcher, b. 1576, d. 1625.—5. Philip Massinger, b. 1584, d. 1640, wrote partly or entirely thirty-eight plays.—James Shirley, b. 1694, d. 1666, wrote about thirty-nine tragedles and comedies.—The other Dramatists are John Marsion, Thomas Dekkar, John Webster, and John Ford.

e. Divinity:—1. Richard Hooker, b. 1554, d. 1600, was one of the greatest and most valuable writers of this period. Of his great work, "The Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity," he published the first four Books in 1594; the fifth Book in 1597; and prepared three others which were not published till after his death. This work, one of the noblest monuments of our language, was written in defence of the

Church of England against the Puritans. The Style though vigorous and perspicuous is Latinized and artificial.

- 2. Dr. Joseph Hall, Bishop of Norwich, b. 1674, d. 1656, was both a poet and divine. His works in general display strength of reasoning and shrewdness of observation; the best known are "Contemplations on Historical Passages in the Bible;" "Occasional Meditations;" and "Three Centuries of Meditations and Vows."
- 3. Jeremy Taylor, Bishop of Down and Connor, b. 1613, d. 1667, was one of the most eloquent preachers of his age. His works, written in a highly florid and poetical style, "abound with brilliant conceptions and glowing expressions." The best known are "Liberty of Prophesying;" "Holy Living;" "Holy Dying;" "The Golden Grove;" and "Sermons."
- 4. William Chillingworth, b. 1602, d. 1644, was an eminent controversial writer. His great work, entitled "The Raligion of Protestants, a Safe Way to Salvation," has been pronounced by Locke and Reid "one of the best specimens of reasoning in our language."

. f. Philosophy and Miscellaneous:-

Francis Bacon, Lord Chancellor of England, and Viscount St. Albans, b. 1561, d. 1626, was one of the most distinguished men of his age. He was the reviver of what is termed "The Inductive System of Philosophy," that is, the mode of reasoning from ascertained facts towards a conclusion, and thus arriving at truth. By him nothing was to be considered as ascertained which had not been previously subjected to the test of experiment, or induced by a series of actual observations.

The mode prevailing before Bocon's time, called the Aristollian, from Aristolle, a Greek philosopher, was to reason from mere assumption or apposition, without regard to facts. Bacon published his "Essays" in 1897; "The Proticience and Advancement of Learning" in 1605; the "Novum Organon" in 1620. These two works he afterwards enlarged and published under the title of "Instauration Magna," or Great Restoration of Philosophy. In this he lays down, as it were, an Intellectual Map, in which all arts and eciences are exhibited in their relation to each other, with their boundaries distinctly defined. The Syle of Bacon is highly ornamental, abounding with metaphors. In life, Bacon exhibited a famentable instance of the union of the highest mental capacity with a mean and dastardly want of principle, for he was convicted of having taken bribes in his high office to pervert justice.

- g. The other distinguished writers of this Period are:-
- William Camden, b. 1551, d. 1623, published in 1586 his "Britannia," a description of Great Britain and Ireland.
- Kir Waller Raleigh, b. 1552, beheaded 1618, a distinguished soldier, colonizer, poet, and historian, wrote while imprisoned in the Tower, his "History of the World."
 - 3. Robert Burton, b. 1576, d. 1640, wrote the "Anatomy of Melancholy."
- 4. John Selden, b. 1584, d. 1654, a celebrated lawyer and politician, wrote many tracts; the only one extant is his "Table Talk."
- 5. Thomas Hobbes, b. 1588 at Malmesbury, d. 1679, published in 1651 his "Leviathan."
- 6. Sir Thomas Brown, b. 1605, d. 1682, published in 1635 his "Religio Medici," and in 1646 his "Valgar Errors."
- 7. Dr. James Usher, Archbishop of Armagh, b. 1551, d. 1656, a distinguished writer in controversial theology.

LESSON 107. b.—Exercise 107. b.—Page 164.

723.

SECOND PERIOD.

The Commonwealth, and Reigns of Charles II., James II., William III.—1649 to 1702.

a. General Characteristics.—This Period has been termed one of Transition; for many of the Prose Writings, especially those of Milton, while possessing much of the nervous force and originality of the preceding era, make a near approach to that correctness in the choice and arrangement of words which has since been attained in English Composition. After the Restoration in 1660, the court and aristocracy, under Charles II. and James II., were plunged in immorality, in which they were followed by many of the people. The Drama was completely sunk in grossness; while the writings of many authors not connected with the drama were tainted by the general depravity, and in style, were imitations of French models. Gradually, however, a few worthy excellent men boldly and firmly withstood the prevailing corruption; as did Barrow, Tillotson, Baxter, and others. (See 266, 267.)

b. The Chief Poets of this Period are :-

- 1. John Milton, b. 1608, d. 1674, the greatest poet not only of this age, but, with the exception of Shakspeare, of any other. His great work, "Paradise Lost," published in 1667, consists of twelve books in blank verse. This Poem relates the creation and fall of Man, and the consequences. The diction is elevated, the versification melodious, the illustrations from nature and art beautiful, and the pictures of human innocence and happiness brightly coloured. Milton published "Paradise Regained" in 1671. Besides these, he wrote "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Samson Agonistes," "Comus," and many minor poems, with several tracts in prose. (See 756.)
- 2. John Dryden, b. 1631, d. 1700, ranks the next to Milton in this Period. Dryden diligently cultivated and much improved English versification. He wrote about twenty-seven plays and many poems upon passing events and characters. The principal of these are "Absolom and Achitophel," a satire on the Whig leaders in the time of Charles II.; "The Year of Wonders;" "Mac Flecnoe;" "Fables;" "Ode on St. Cecilia's Day." He also translated the works of Virgil and the Satires of Persius into English verse. (See 757.)
- 3. Samuel Butler, b. 1612, d. 1680, published in 1663, his "Hudibras," a comic poem intended to burlesque the religious characters of the Republican party. It exhibits great richness of fancy and power of wit.

The Secondary Poets are—Abroham Couley, b. 1618, d. 1667; and Edmuna Walter, b. 1605, d. 1687. Walter's poems are chiefly characterized by harmony of expression.

- c. The Dramatists were—Dryden, Wycherley, Olway, and a few others, all more or less infected by the moral corruption of the times.
 - d. The chief writers in Divinity are:-
- 1. Isaac Barrow, b. 1630, d. 1677, eminent as a mathematician as well as a divine. His "Sermons," for which he is chiefly known, were published after his death.
- 2. John Tillotson, b. 1630, d. 1694, Archbishop of Canterbury, distinguished as a preacher; many of his sermons were published after his death.
 - 3. Robert South, b. 1633, d. 1716, styled the wittiest of English divines.
 - 4. Edward Stillingfeet, b. 1635, d. 1699, known for his "Sermons."
 - 5. William Sherlock, b. 1641, d. 1707, known as a controversial writer, &c.
- 6. Richard Baxter, b. 1615, d. 1691, a Dissenting minister, wrote many works, of which the best known are, his "Saints' Everlasting Rest;" and "Call to the Unconverted."
- 7. John Bunyan, b. 1629, d. 1688, a Baptist preacher, wrote several works, of which the best known is, "The Pilgrim's Progress," a religious allegory, remarkable for its homely carnestness and idiomatic vigour of style.
- e. In Mental Philosophy, the most distinguished writer of the age was—John Locke, b. 1632, d. 1704. His chief work is, "An Essay on the Human Understanding," published in 1690. In this work, Locke rejects the doctrine which presumes men to have ideas born with them, and endeavours to show, that the senses and power of reflection are our only sources of knowledge. This work was the toil of eighteen years. Besides this, he wrote—"A Treatise on Toleration;" two treatises "On Civil Government;" "An Essay on Education," and a small work entitled "The Conduct of the Understanding," which was published after his death.
- f. In Science,—Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642, d. 1727, was the most distinguished discoverer in the world. His "Principla," or Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy, was published in 1687.

Dr. Isaac Barrow and the Hon. Robert Boyle were distinguished Scientific Writers of this Period.

- g. History and Miscellanies-
- 1. Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, b. 1603, d. 1674, wrote the "History of the Rebellion,"
- 2. Gilbert Burnet, Bishop of Salisbury, b. 1643, d. 1715, wrote "The History of my own Times;" "History of the Reformation of the Church of England;" Life of Sir Matthew Hale," &c.
- 3. Dr. Thomas Fuller, b. 1608, d. 1661, a divine of the Church of England, a abrowd observer of men and manners, and remarkable for his wit, wrote several works, of which the most known are his-"Church History of England;" "The Worthies of England;" "Holy and Profane States."
- 4. Isaac Walton, b. 1893, d. 1683, a retired linen-draper, and a man of a most benerolent disposition, wrote "The Complete Angler, or Contemplative Man's Recreation," and reveral biographical works. Walton associated with many eminent men, by whom he was much beloved.

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724. THIRD PERIOD.

The Reigns of Anne and George I.-1702 to 1727.

a. The low state of morality which had disgraced the preceding Period continued to prevail in this: gambling and drunkenness were common; swearing and indecency of language were much indulged in. The pleasures of the intellect and taste were either unknown or confined to a few. The general knowledge which in our age circulates in ordinary conversation was then rarely to be found. To combat the national follies and vices of the age, and to infuse a more courteous, refined, and Christian tone into the manners of society, was the aim of several excellent writers who appeared at this time, known by the name of Essayists. These published their remarks on any subject in the form of cheap penny tracts, issued at regular The originator of this species of literature and short intervals. was Sir Richard Steele, who commenced, in April 1709, the publication of "The Tatler," a small sheet which appeared three times a week, designed to "expose the false arts of life, to pull off the disguises of cunning, vanity, and affectation, and to recommend a general simplicity in our dress, discourse, and behaviour." In this work, he was, after a time, assisted by Addison. On its discontinuance in January 1711, "The Spectator" was commenced under the joint management of Addison and Steele, assisted by Tickell and others. Spectator" extended to 635 numbers, forming 8 volumes, and was brought to a close in 1713, when another work, called "The Guardian," was commenced under the same writers and for the same object.

Though the writers of this Period are unequal to those of the two preceding eras, both in originality and boldness of conception, in comprehensiveness of view and force of expression, yet, they were finished gentlemen, and men of knowledge, wit, and refinement. The writings of the Essayists, more especially those of Addison, evince great skill in the use of words, richness of figurative language, and smoothness and harmony in the structure of sentences. At the same time, "by the gentleness of their satire, the familiarity of their criticism, and the tolerance of their morality," they produced a far more beneficial effect upon the intellectual and moral progress of the nation than they could have done by more direct attacks upon vice and folly. (See 268, 269.)

b. The Chief Poet of this Period was—Alexander Pope, b. 1688, d. 1744. In 1709 he published his "Pastorals;" in 1711, his "Essay

on Criticism," which is admired for the justness of the observations; in 1712, his "Rape of the Lock," a mock heroic; afterwards, he published the "Epistle of Eloisa to Abelard;" the "Temple of Fame;" Translations of Homer's "Iliad" and "Odyssey;" in 1728, the first three books of the "Dunciad;" and in 1733, his "Essay on Man," a series of arguments on the various relations of man, forming an admirable mixture of fancy, good sense, propriety of illustration, and conciseness of expression. Pope is celebrated for the correctness of his versification, and the strength and splendour of his diction. (See 758.)

The principal Secondary Poets are :-

- 1. Jeeph Addison, the celebrated Essayist, published in 1705, "The Campaign:" and afterwards several excellent devotional pieces.
- 2. Matther Prior, b. 1664, d. 1721, published many light pieces, written in a neat and lively manner, but sometimes degraded by their indelicacies.
 - 2. Dr. Jonathan Swift wrote many humorous and satirical pieces in verse.
 - 4. John Gay, b. 1623, d. 1732, is best known for his "Fables" in verse.
- 5. Thomas Parnell, b. 1679, d. 1717, wrote "The Hermit," and some other pieces.
 - 6. Thomas Tickell, b. 1686, d. 1740, wrote several minor pieces.
 - c. In Trapedy,—the chief writers were—Southerne, Addison, Lillo, and Rowe-In Comedy—Congreve, Farquhar, and Vanbrugh.
- d. Dirinity:—1. Dr. Samuel Clarke, b. 1675, d. 1729, a man of great mental endowments, published "Paraphrases on the Gospels;" "Sermons on the Attributes of God," and several other works.
- 2. Dr. Benjamin Hoadley, Bishop of Bangor, b. 1676, d. 1761, a celebrated controvercial writer, on the evangelical side, and author of many sermons.
- Charles Leslie, b. 1650, d. 1722, published in 1690, "A Short and Easy Method with the Deists;" and afterwards "A Short and Easy Method with the Jews," and several other works.
- c. The Escapists.—1. Joseph Addison, b. 1672, d. 1719, is justly regarded the most distinguished of the Essayists, and the forcrunner of the great English Novelists. Of "The Spectator," he wrote about three-sevenths. In his moral essays, he everywhere displays the purest Christian feeling; and in those on general Literature, especially in his celebrated Essays on Milton, he develops the genuine principles of poetic criticism. His Style is a model of idiomatic English and Colloquial Elegance.

Lord Macaulay, in speaking of Addison, says—"The English Language had never before been written with such swedness, grace, and facility. As a moral eatirist, he stands unrivalled. In wit, he was not inferior to Cowley or Butler; but, the higher faculty of invention he possessed in a still larger measure. As an observir of life, of manners, of all the shades of human character, he stands in the first class; and what he observed he had the art of communicating. His humour is delicious and always that of a gentleman, in whom the quicket sense of the 'ridiculous is constantly tempered by good nature and good breeding. Many uninent men have made the diction of Addison their model, but none have been able to catch the tone of his pleasantry. The service which Addison's Essays rendered to morality cannot be too highly estimated."

2. Sir Richard Steele, b. in 1671 in Dublin, d. in 1729, was the originator of the series of writings called Essays, and was next only to Addison in the value of his contributions. In 1709, he commenced

"The Tatler," in which, after some time, he was assisted by Addison. In 1711, in conjunction with Addison, he commenced "The Spectator," and afterwards, in 1713, "The Guardian," which was published daily till it had reached the 175th number, when it was discontinued.

The other leading contributors to the Essays were Budgell, Hughes, and Tickell.

- f. Miscellaneous:—1. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin, b. 1667, d. 1744, a man of great intellectual power and ready wit, but of a vindictive disposition, was one of the most distinguished writers of this age. His works are chiefly of a political character, written with great plainness and power, and serving as models of satirical composition.—In 1704, he published "The Tale of a Tub," a burlesque on Romanists, Episcopalians, and Presbyterians;—in 1711, "The Conduct of the Allies;"—in 1724, "The Drapier Letters," against the government of Ireland for introducing a new coinage of half-pence into Ireland;—in 1726, "Gulliver's Travels," and afterwards some tracts on "Polite Conversation," and "Directions to Servants."
- 2. Daniel de Foe, b. 1663, d. 1731, originally a hosier in London, afterwards, a great political writer and pamphleteer. The best known of his works is the popular fiction of "Robinson Crusoe," which appeared in 1719. The style of De Foe is very natural and idiomatic, serving as a good model of forcible English composition.
- 3. Dr. George Berkeley, b. 1684, d. 1753, Bishop of Cloyne, was a man of great ability. In 1709, he published "The Theory of Vision;" afterwards, "The Principles of Human Knowledge;" and in 1782, "The Minute Philosopher."
- 4. Anthony Ashley Cooper, third Earl of Shaftesbury, b. 1671, d. 1713, published various works, which after his death were collected into one volume entitled "Characteristics of Men, Manners, Opinions, and Times."
- 5. Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, b. 1672, d. 1751, a man of brilliant talents, but of unsound if not of pernicious principles, published several political and satirical pamphlets.
- Dr. Richard Bentley, b. in 1661, at Oulton, near Leeds, d. 1742, was the most distinguished classical critic and commentator of his age.

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725.

FOURTH PERIOD.

The Reign of George II .-- 1727 to 1760.

a. The Style of Addison is, as before stated, that of Colloquial Elegance, or the mode of expression which is used by well-instructed men in elegant conversation. In such a style, the words employed are mostly familiar, and the structure of the sentences is in accordance with the Saxon arrangement of our language. For many years after Addison's time, it seems to have been the principal ambition among writers to form their style after his model. Hence, exemption from faults, a negative sort of excellence, was the object at which the majority of

them simed; and, in their efforts to attain polish and refinement, they forgot to think for themselves and nobly speak their thoughts.

In the year 1750, appeared "The Rambler," written by Dr. Samuel Johnson, a man of vast intellectual power. The style of this work was totally dissimilar from that of its predecessors, and soon attracted a number of imitators. Instead of the elegant simplicity of Addison, the style of Johnson is pompous and imposing, suitable, perhaps, for conveying the sentiments of so gigantic a mind as his, but ridiculous when employed by inferior ones. In his vocabulary, he has introduced many fresh Latinisms, and revived others which has become obsolete. In the arrangement of his words, he has abandoned the familiar structure of the Saxon part of our language, and followed the mode employed in the Latin and continental languages. Thus, two distinctive styles began to exist, which have continued more or less to influence writers to the present time. (See 268, 269.)

b. The Chief Poets are:-

- 1. Dr. Edward Young, b. 1684, d. 1765, celebrated for his "Night Thoughts," a work containing much striking imagery, and many profound but gloomy reflections.
- 2. James Thomson, b. 1700 in Roxburghshire, d. 1748, published in 1726 his poem called "Winter;" in 1727, "Summer;" in 1728, his "Spring;" and in 1730, his "Autumn." These four afterwards appeared in one volume entitled "The Seasons." They are written in blank verse, and describe the various appearances of nature with great faithfulness, but in a style which is frequently affected and pompous. Thomson next published "Liberty," and in 1746 his "Castle of Indolence," an allegorical poem, in the manner of Spenser, and containing many obsolete words. Besides these, he published some tragedies and odes.

The principal Secondary Poets are :-

^{1.} Thomas Gray, b. 1716, d. 1771, well known for his "Elegy in a Country Churchyard;" ode on "The Progress of Poetry;" "The Bard;" and ode on "The Prospect of Eton College."

^{2.} Dr. Mark Akenside, b. 1721, d. 1770, a physician, published "The Pleasures of the Imagination," in which he describes in elegant and harmonious blank verse, the causes of our emotions of taste, the processes of memory and association, and the manner in which Genius collects her stores for works of excellence.

^{3.} William Collins, b. 1720, d. 1756, is best known for his ode "To the Passions."

Dr. Samuel Johnson, as a post, is known for his "Vanity of Human Wishes," and "London," a ratire.

^{5.} Dr. Isaac Watts, b. 1674, d. 1748, n Dissenting minister, venerable for his piety, is distinguished for his well-known "Hymns," and "Lyrical Pieces."

^{6.} William Somerville, b. 1692, d. 1742, wrote "The Chase."

^{7.} Robert Blair, a native of Scotland, b. 1709, d. 1748, wrote a poem called "The Grave."

- 8. William Shensione, b. 1714, d. 1763, wrote "A Pastoral Ballad."
- 9. William Palconer, b. 1730, lost at sea 1769, wrote "The Shipwreck."
- e. The chief writers in Tragedy are: -Thomson, Dr. Young, Murphy. Mason, Moore, and Home.

d. Divines:---

- 1. Dr. Joseph Butler, Bishop of Durham, b. 1692, d. 1752, published in 1736 his great work, called "The Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature;" a masterpiece of reasoning on behalf of Christianity, showing that all objections urged against Revelation can be equally urged against Nature. This work, though written in a barren and difficult style, is of incalculable importance to all students in divinity.
- 2. Dr. Robert Lowth, Bishop of London, b. 1710, d. 1787, a distinguished Hebrew scholar, published "Lectures on the Sacred Poetry of the Jews;" "Commentary on the Book of Isaiah;" and "An English Grammar."
- 3. Dr. Nathaniel Lardner, a Dissenting minister, b. 1684, d. 1768, published about 1730 his "Credibility of the Gospel History," in 15 vols., an important work,
- 4. Dr. John Leland, b. 1691, d. 1766, published an "Analysis of Deistical Writers, and an Account of the Answers that have been written to them."
- 5. Dr. William Warburton, Bishop of Gloucester, b. 1698, d. 1779, published in 1738 his "Divine Legation of Moses."
- 6. Dr. Conyers Middleton, b. 1683, d. 1750, published a "Free Inquiry into the Miraculous Powers, supposed to subsist in the Christian Church," and other works.
- 7. Dr. John Jortin, b. 1698, d. 1770, published "Discourses concerning the Truth of the Christian Revelation."
- 8. Archbishop Secker, b. 1693, d. 1768, published "Lectures on the Church Catechism."
- 9. Dr. Itaac Walls, before mentioned, published "A Treatise on Logic;" "Improvement of the Mind;" "Scrmons," &c.
- 10. Dr. Philip Boddridge, a Dissenting minister, b. 1702, d. 1751, published "The Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul;" "The Family Expeditor," &c.
 - e. History and Biography:-
- 1. Thomas Carte, b. 1686, d. 1754, published "A History of England."—2. Nathantel Hooke, published his "Roman History."—3. Dr. Middleton, published his "Life of Cicero."—4. Dr. Jortin, published his "Life of Erasmus."

f. Metaphysics and Philosophy:-

- 1. David Hume, the historian, published in 1738, "A Treatise on Human Nature;" in 1742, his "Essays, Moral, Political, and Literary."
- 2. Dr. Francis Hutcheson, a native of Ireland, b. 1694, d. 1747, wrote, along with other works, "A System of Moral Philosophy," which was published after his death.

- 3. Dr. David Hartley, an English physician, published in 1749 his "Observations on Man, his Frame, his Duty, and his Expectations."
- 4. Dr. Adam Smith, b. 1723, d. 1790, Professor of Logic in Glasgow University, published in 1759 his "Theory of Moral Sentiments."

g. Pariodical Estays:-

A new series of Essays was commenced with—1. "The Rambler," in 1750, which was almost entirely written by Dr. Johnson. The subjects discussed were connected with ordinary life.—2. "The Adventurer," begun in 1752, and conducted by Dr. John Hawkesworth, was meritorious for its excellent moral essays.—3. "The World," begun in 1753, was conducted by Edward Moore and others.—4. "The Connoisseur," begun in 1755, was conducted by G. Colman and Bonnell Thornton.—5. "The Idler," begun in 1755 by Dr. Johnson, was written in a more lively manner than "The Rambler."—The Etyle of these Essays would in general be unsuitable to modern taste; their description of character is too superficial, and their exposure of vices too feeble.

h. Miscellaneous:-

Dr. Samuel Johnson, b. 1709, d. 1784, by far the most remarkable man of this period, possessed one of the most powerful intellects of any age. His most important works are—1. his "Dictionary of the English Language," published in 1755. This work, which had occupied him for eight years, though defective in Etymology, is still of great value for its admirable definitions and well-chosen illustrations. 2. His "Journey to the Western Isles." 3. "The Lives of the Poets," published in 1781, a valuable store of biography, criticism, and powerful thinking. The "Life of Johnson," written by James Boswell, and published in 1791, is a most instructive literary production. The influence of Johnson's style was great in his own day, and though diminished, is still considerable.

During this period, Ephraim Chambers published in 1728 a "Cyclopeedia;" Robert Rodeley, a bookseller, published in 1748 "The Preceptor," and atterwards "The Economy of Human Life." Various Magazines and Reviews, also, were begun at this time.

i. Novelists:-

- 1. Samuel Richardson, b. 1689, d. 1781, a bookseller in London, was induced, when turned fifty years of age, to write a series of letters, which he connected into a continuous narrative, and published anonymously in 1740 under the title of "Pamela." This was our furt English Novel. The object of the writer was to inculcate the principles of piety and virtue. Richardson afterwards published two other novels, inculcating the same principles; these were called "Carissa Harlowe," and "Eir Charles Grandison."
- 2. Henry Fielding, b. 1707, d. 1734, was the next writer of this kind of composition. He published several well-known novels, written with great power of description, but exhibiting a total indifference to everything good and virtuous.
- 3. Tollas Smollet, b. 1721, d. 1771, a native of Scotland, was a writer of the same kind as Fielding.
- 4. Laurence Sterne, b. 1713, d. 1768, wrote a fiction, called "The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy," and "A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy."

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726.

FIFTH PERIOD.

Part of the Reign of George III.—1760 to 1800.

a. General Characteristics.—During the First Half of this Period, the generality of the writers imitated more or less the style either of Johnson or of Addison. In the Second Half a change was gradually introduced both in prose and verse by a series of bold and independent thinkers, who describe their feelings and express their convictions in an animated and vigorous style. (See 270, 271.)

b. Chief Poets:-

- 1. William Cowper, b. 1731, d. 1800, commenced his career as a poet when above fifty years of age. He published in 1782 his "Table Talk," "Hope," "The Progress of Error," "Conversation," &c.; and in 1784, his most important work, "The Task," consisting of six books in blank verse. He afterwards published "The Tirocinium," a review of public schools, and several other pieces. In "The Task," Cowper describes rural scenes, domestic happiness, fireside enjoyments, and ordinary characters, blended with moral sentiments and subjects of public interest. His versification is sometimes rough, "not from a vicious ear, but merely to show that he despised being smooth." His language is plain, forcible, and idiomatic, and his morality sound and pure. Cowper is pre-eminently the poet of domestic life. (See 759.)
- 2. Robert Burns, b. 1759, d. 1796, a native of Ayrshire, published in 1786 a volume of poems, written in his native dialect, which established his character as a genuine poet. The fame of Burns rests on his Songs.
- 3. Oliver Goldsmith, a pleasing though not a great poet, b. 1728, d. 1774, published in 1765 "The Traveller," in 1769 his "Deserted Village," and afterwards the comedies "The Good-Natured Man," and "She Stoops to Conquer." Goldsmith's versification is harmonious, his descriptions pleasing but exaggerated, his sentiments always amiable.

As respectable secondary poets may be mentioned:—Dr. James Beattle, b. 1736, d. 1803, author of "The Minstrel;" Dr. John Armstrong, b. 1709, d. 1779, author of "The Art of Preserving Health;" Dr. Erasmus Darwin, b. 1732, d. 1802, author of "The Botanical Garden."

c. Divinity:--

1. Dr. William Paley, Archdeacon of Carlisle, b. 1743, d. 1805, published in 1785 his "Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy," an able work, but in several portions unsound. In 1790 he published his "Horae Paulinae," in which he proves from undesigned coincidences, the genuineness of St. Paul's Epistles, and of the narrative given in the Acts of the Apostles. In 1794 he published his

"Evidences of Christianity," which establishes the credibility of the Evangelists, &c. In 1802 he published his "Natural Theology," in which he skilfally illustrates the power, wisdom, and goodness of our Creator. The last three named are standard works. Besides these, he published several valuable "Sermons." In Paley, we notice an acuteness of reasoning and forcibleness of illustration rarely equalled, combined with a style easy, perspicuous, and natural.

- 2. Dr. Richard Watson, b. 1737, d. 1816, Bishop of Llandaff, published in 1776, "An Apology for Christianity," in reply to Gibbon; and in 1796, "An Apology for the Bible," in answer to Thomas Paine. Both these are valuable and standard works.
- Dr. George Campbell, b. 1719, d. 1796, Principal of Marischal College,
 Aberdeen, wrote an "Essay on Miracles," in reply to Hume; "A Translation of the Four Gospels;" and also, "The Philosophy of Rhetoric."
 - 4. Dr. Hugh Elair, b. 1718, d. 1603, Professor of Rhetoric in Edinburgh University, published in 1777 several volumes of Sermons. He was also the author of the well-known "Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres."

d. History and Biography :-

- 1. David Hume, b. in Edinburgh in 1711, d. 1776, eminent as a philosopher and historian, published at intervals, between 1754 and 1761, his "History of England to the End of the Reign of James II." In this work, the narrative of the important events is told with great clearness, and the characters, thoughts, and feelings of historical personages are depicted in a sensible and charming manner. Its great defects are want of accuracy in detail, an indolent reliance on second-hand authority, and a strong partiality towards the Stuart dynasty. It is not now considered a work of authority.
- 2. Dr. William Robertson, b. 1721, d. 1793, a clergyman of the Kirk of Scotland, published in 1759 his "History of Scotland during the Reigns of Queen Mary and James VI.;" in 1769, his "History of the Reign of the Emperor Charles V.;" and in 1777, his "History of America." The style of Robertson is pure, clear, and elegant. Though he is too fond of picture drawing, his opinions are formed with good judgment, and always temperately expressed. His disquisitions are singularly able and instructive. His works, though written under very unfavourable circumstances, are still of great historic value.
 - 3. Edward Gibbon, b. in London in 1737, d. 1794, published in 1776 the first volume of his "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," and the last in 1787. This great work displays extensive learning, unwearied industry, great research, and consummate skill of composition. There is, however, one sad drawback. In the words of Dean Milman,—"Christianity alone receives no embellishment from the magic of Gibbon's language; his imagination is dead to its moral dignity; it is kept down by a general tone of jealous disparagement, or neutralised by a painfully elaborate exposition of its darker and degenerate periods." As a whole, the style is ornate and pompous; the words are chiefly of Latin root, not of Saxon; the

French rather than the English idiom is followed in the frequent antitheses; and the structure of the sentences is monotonous and complex. Notwithstanding these defects, he narrates events in a clear, animated, and striking manner, and brings before the reader's eye the persons and scenes which he describes.

The Secondary Historical and Biographical Works are:-

- 1. Dr. Robert Henry's "History of Great Britain."
- 2. Dr. Thomas Warton's "History of English Poetry."
- 3. Dr. Adam Ferguson's "Roman Republic."
- 4. Dr. Samuel Johnson's " Lives of the Poets."
- 5. James Boswell's " Life of Johnson."
- e. Mental Philosophy, Morals, &c .:-
- 1. Adam Smith, before mentioned, published in 1776 his great work, "The Wealth of Nations," the labour of ten years; a standard work on Political Economy. Smith had already published in 1759 his "Theory of Moral Sentiments."
- 2. Abraham Tucker published in 1765 "The Light of Nature Pursued." To this work Paley was much indebted.
- 3. Dr. Thomas Reid, b. 1710, d. 1795, the founder of the Scottish School in Philosophy, published in 1763 his great work entitled "An Inquiry into the Human Mind on the Principles of Common Sense," and in 1785 his "Essays on the Intellectual Faculties and the Active Powers."
- 4. Miss Hannah More, b. 1744, d. 1833, was the most meritorious female writer on moral and religious subjects of this period. At first, she wrote several plays, but a change having been produced in her mind, her energies were directed to works of piety and usefulness. To counteract the pernicious principles of the French Revolution, she published in 1794, "Village Politics;" and next, a periodical work, called "The Cheap Repository;" for these she received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. She afterwards published "Practical Piety;" "Christian Morals;" "Strictures on the Modern System of Female Education," and several other works.
 - f. Criticism and Miscellaneous:-
- 1. Oliver Goldsmith published in 1761 his "Vicar of Wakefield," and "Citizen of the World." Goldsmith's style is un imitation of Addison's.
- 2. Henry Mackenzie, b. 1745, d. 1831, published in 1771 his "Man of Feeling," a novel; afterwards he edited the periodicals, "The Mirror," and "The Lounger."
- 3. Edmund Burke, b. 1730, d. 1797, celebrated as an orator, published in 1757 his "Essay en the Sublime and BeantHul;" in 1790, his "Reflections on the Revolution in France."
- 4. Sir William Blackstone, b. 1723, d. 1780, published in 1765 his "Commentaries on the Laws of England."
- 5. Dr. George Campbell, previously mentioned, published in 1776 his "Philosophy of Rhetoric."
- 6. Henry Home, Lord Kames, b. 1636, d. 1782, published in 1762 his "Elements of Criticism," and in 1773, his "Sketches of the History of Man."
- 7. Dr. Hugh Blair, mentioned before, published about 1783 his "Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres."
- 8. Horne Tooks published in 1786, "The Diversions of Purley," a mixture of grammar, etymology, politics, and metaphysics.

LESSON 107. f.—Exercise 107. f.—Page 164.

727.

SIXTH PERIOD.

Part of the Nineteenth Century .- 1800 to 1860.

a. The Nineteenth Century has been a time of extraordinary mental activity, in which knowledge of every kind has been extensively diffused, and books multiplied beyond precedent. For boldness and originality of conception, for industry and earnestness of investigation, for clearness, force, and beauty of expression, and for elevation and usefulness of design, the writers of the present century, particularly those of the first thirty years, are equal, if not superior, to those of any preceding period, Shakspeare, Milton, and Bacon alone excepted. In general Style, the nerveless polish and refinement of former ages have given place to directness and energy of expression. Nor have the improvements of former periods been lost. For, our language has become more definite in the use of words, more harmonious in its sounds, and more copious in its terms.

It has been well observed, that "the good writer of the present day always seems to write under a degree of excitement. He is full of his subject, and his attention is directed to what he shall say, rather than to the manner of conveying his thoughts. His expressions have an air of originality about them. There is no toilsome selection of words, no laboured composition of sentences, no high-wrought ornament; but the words, and sentiments, and ornaments, are such as most naturally present themselves to his excited mind." His style, also, is not formed on any single model, but in accordance with the principles of philosophical taste.

b. The writers of this Period are so numerous, that we can only mention the most distinguished.

The Chief Poets are:-

- 1. Rev. George Crabbe, b. 1754, d. 1832, a man of humble origin, published in 1782, "The Village," a poem; in 1785, "The Newspaper;" in 1807, "The Parish Register;" in 1810, "The Borough;" in 1812, "Tales in Verse;" in 1819, "Tales of the Hall." Crabbe is a stern and accurate delineator of human nature in its unpleasing aspects.
- 2. William Wordsworth, b. 1770, d. 1850, published in 1793 a small volume of poems, entitled "The Evening Walk;" in 1798, his "Lyrical Ballads;" in 1814, his "Exension," which forms his great work; in 1815, his "White Doe of Rylstone;" and in 1820, his "Sonnets." His Excursion, while depicting merely ordinary actions and characters, contains many rich and noble thoughts.

- 3. Samuel Taylor Coleridge, b. 1773, d. 1834, published in 1796 a small volume of "Juvenile Poems;"—in 1816, his fragment, called "Christabel;" this and "Genevieve," "The Ancient Mariner," and his "Ode to Mont Blanc," are considered his finest poetical pieces. Besides these, Coleridge wrote in prose a periodical called "The Friend:" "Aids to Reflection," and other works.
- 4. Robert Southey, b. 1774, d. 1843, published in 1795 his "Joan of Arc." His principal poems are, "Thalaba the Destroyer," published in 1803; "The Curse of Kehama," published in 1811; and "Roderick, the Last of the Goths," published in 1814. He wrote several others. In addition to his poems, Southey wrote several valuable prose works, the best known of which are his "History of the Church;" "Life of Nelson;" "Life of Wesley;" "History of Brazil." He was an ardent and indefatigable worker, but frequently unfortunate in the choice of his subjects. His prose style is remarkably clear and vigorous.
- 5. Sir Walter Scott, b. in Edinburgh in 1771, d. in 1832, is one of the distinguished poets of this period. He published in 1805 his "Lay of the Last Minstrel;" "Marmion" in 1808; "The Lady of the Lake" in 1810; "Rokeby" in 1812; "Lord of the Isles" in 1814. All these have enjoyed a popularity unparalleled in the annals of poetry. Scott is still more distinguished as a Novelist.
- 6. Lord George Gordon Byron, b. 1788, d. 1824, published the first canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage in 1812; "The Giaour" and "Bride of Abydos" in 1813; "The Corsair" and "Lara" in 1814; "Hebrew Melodies" and "Siege of Corinth" in 1815; "The Prisoner of Chillon" in 1816; "Manfred" and "Lament of Tasso" in 1817, and subsequently several other pieces. Byron excelled his contemporaries in his power of description; his imagination was lofty but distorted; he almost everywhere shows a wanton disregard for the distinction between right and wrong, and hence. though his diction is frequently most elegant, the study of his works has a dangerous influence.
- 7. Thomas Moore, b. in Dublin in 1780, d. 1852, wrote many poems, of which some of his early ones are highly objectionable. His most meritorious poems are—"Irish Melodies," published in 1813; "Lalla Rookh," published in 1817, an Oriental tale, written in a very ornate style.
- 8. Thomas Campbell, b. 1777 in Glasgow, d. 1844, published in 1799 his "Pleasures of Hope;" in 1809, his "Gertrude of Wyoming," and subsequently, several lyrical pieces. He also published "Specimens of the British Poets," accompanied with criticisms.
- 9. Alfred Tennyson, b. 1809, the principal of the living poets, has published many works, the best known of which are-"Poems, chiefly Lyrical;" "The Princess," in 1847; "In Memoriam," in 1850; "Mand," in 1855; "The Idylls of the King," in 1858; "Enoch Arden," in 1865.

Of the Secondary Poets, the principal are-

1. Lord Macaulay, b. 1800, d. 1859, distinguished far more as an Escayist and Historian, has written "Ivry," a song of the Huguenots, and "Laysof Ancient Rome."

2. James Monigomery, b. 1771, d. 1854, published in 1896, "The Wanderer of Switzerland;" in 1810, "The West Indies;" in 1813, "The World before the Flood;" in 1819, "Greenland;" in 1822, "Songs of Sion;" in 1827, "The Pelican Island."

3. Samuel Rogers, b. 1763, d. 1855, a banker in London, wrote several poems, of which the best known ere—" Pleasures of Memory," published in 1792, the toil of nine years; "Human Life," in 1819, also the toil of nine years; and "Italy," in 1822, which had occupied him nearly sixteen years.

 Professor John Wilson, b. 1785, d. 1854, the well-known editor (Christopher North) of "Blackwood's Magazine," published in 1812 his "Isle of Palms, and other Poems."

5. James Grahame, b. 1765, d. 1811, published in 1604, "The Sabbath," in blank verse."

6. James Hogg, b. 1771, d. 1835, known as the Ettrick Shepherd, published in 1813, "The Queen's Wake;" afterwards, other poems.

7. Leigh Hunt, b. 1784, d. 1859, published in 1816, "The Story of Rimini;" and afterwards, several other poems.

The other distinguished writers of this class are :-

Mrs. Felicia Hemans;—Miss Joanna Baillie;—Letitia Elizabeth Landon;— Maxy Howitt;—Mrs. Bobart Browning;—Thomas Hood;—Bev. W. Barham, author of "Ingoldsby Legends;"—Bev. Liele Boules; and Eliza Cook.

c. The chief Diring:-

Archbishop Sumner; Bishop Marth; T. H. Horne; Charles Simeon; Robert Hall; Dr. Thomas Chalmers; Dr. Adam Clarke; Thomas Sout, the commentator;—Dr. John Killo, a layman, the well-known editor of the "Pictorial Bible," and other works;—Abp. Trench. on the Parables and Miracles of our Lord, &c.;—and Conyleare and Dean Houson on the Epistles of St. Paul.

d. Chief Historians:-

- 1. Henry Hallam, b. 1778, d. 1859, the distinguished author of-"State of Europe during the Middle Ages;" "History of European Literature during the 15th, 16th, and 17th Centuries;" "The Constitutional History of England."
- 2. Thomas Babington Macaulay, Baron Macaulay, wrote the "History of England from the Accession of James II." This History, which ranks in the first class, is printed in several sizes.
- 3. Sharon Turner, author of "History of the Anglo-Saxons;" "History of England during the Middle Ages;" and "Sacred History of the World."
 - 4. James Anthony Froude has written a "History of England to the Reign of Elizabeth."
 - 5. Bp. Thirlwall has written a "History of Greece."
 - 6. Mr. Grote has also written a "History of Greece."

The following works are well known :-

Souther's "History of the Church;" "History of Brazil,"—Col. W. Napier's "History of the Peningular War,"—Mules "History of India,"—Sir Archibaid Alison's "History of Europe from the French Berolution,"—W. H. Presents "Ferdinand and Isabella;" "Conquest of Mexico;" and "Conquest of Pering," and "History of the Netherlands,"—Milman's "Latin Christianity,"

e. The Chief Novelists :--

- 1. Sir Walter Scott, by far the most distinguished of Novelists, has written—"Waverley;" "Guy Mannering;" "The Antiquary;" "Rob Roy;" "Old Mortality;" "Heart of Mid-Lothian;" "Ivanhoe;" "The Monastery;" "The Abbot;" Kenilworth," and others.
- 2. Miss Hannah More published "Coelebs in Search of a Wife."—Miss Maria Edgeworth published "The Parent's Assistant;" "Moral Tales;" "Popular Tales," &c.—Miss Jane Austen published "Pride and Prejudice," &c.—Mrs. Opie, "Tales of Real Life."—Miss Elix. Hamilton, "The Cottagers of Glenburnie." The preceding have a moral tendency.
- 3. John Galt published "The Annals of the Parish;" "The Ayrahire Legatees," &c.—Prof. John Wilson, "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life," &c.—Washington Irring, an American, published "The Sketch-Book;" "Bracebridge Hall," &c.
- 4. Charles Dickens is well known for his "Pickwick Papers;" "Nicholas Nickleby," &c. William M. Thackeray, for his "Vanity Fair;" "Lectures on the English Humourists," &c.—Lord Buluer Lytton, for "My Novel," and many others.
 - f. In Philosophy and Melaphysics, the chief writers are :-

Dugald Stewart; -Dr. Thomas Brown; -Sir James Mackintosh; -Dr. John Abercrombie; -Sir William Hamilton; -James Mill, and his son John Stuart Mill.

- g. Miscellaneous:-
- 1. John Foster, a Baptist minister, is well known for his clever "Essays on Decision of Character," and "Evils of Popular Ignorance."
 - 2. Lord Jeffrey, for his Essays and Contributions to the "Edinburgh Review."
- 3. Lord Macaulay, the historian, is also distinguished for his valuable "Essaya."
 - 4. Rev. Sydney Smith was another able contributor to the "Edinburgh Review."
- Of Periodicals,—The "Edinburgh" and "Quarterly" Reviews; "Blackwood's" and "Fraser's" Magazines; and "The Times" newspaper, may be mentioned as the principal.
- 728. Of useful Compendiums, containing Extracts from our Principal Writers, the following may be recommended. Any one of these will be sufficient.
 - Readings in English Prose Literature.
 Readings in English Poetry.
 - 2. Spalding's History of English Literature.
 Shaw's Choice Specimens of English Literature.
 - 3. Knight's Half-Hours with the Best Authors.

IV. ADVANTAGES OF GOOD MODELS.

LESSON 108.—Exercise 108.—Page 165.

729. A valuable auxiliary in the formation of a good Style is the Systematic Study of the Best Models. By this is meant, not a mere perusal of these works, but such an earnest study as is pursued by the Artist in the acquisition of skill in his profession. The Painter emphatically studies the picture which he admires, both as to its design and execution. Knowing that

it is calculated to give pleasure, he endeavours to discover in what its excellence consists: and thus to derive from the study of it, Rules which may guide him in his own efforts, and assist him in his judgment of the works of others. His views are thus expanded, and his taste formed on the great Masters of his art.

- 730. The Author to be selected as a Model for subjects of a high class, should be distinguished for the forcibleness of his arguments, the neatness of his arrangement, and the perspicuity of his expression. In subjects of an ordinary kind, the Student should fix upon that Style which has most interested and impressed his own mind, and is most congenial to his taste and habits. Such a plan has been more or less followed by most of our good writers. Pope carefully studied Dryden; Gibbon studied Blackstone; Robertson, the writings of De Foe and Swift; and Hugh Miller and Franklin, the pages of Addison. One author at a time is sufficient.
- 731. a. In studying a portion of your selected Author, proceed thus:—Carefully notice the kind of arguments introduced; the order in which they are placed; the kind and degree of ornament employed; the class of words, whether Saxon or Classical, and to what extent; and the structure of the sentences. Notice the impression made on your mind by these things.
- b. When a portion has been thus studied, then give a written Analysis of the same, stating in your own words, when the subject is Argumentative, the Proposition and the Arguments adduced in its support; when Narrative or Descriptive, the appropriate sequence of events or observations. This plan, while acquainting you with the opinions of the best writers on any subject, will powerfully tend to discipline and invigorate the mind. Many writers have borne testimony to the advantages to be derived from such a mode. Others have found it beneficial to reduce their knowledge to Aphorisms which could be quoted and expanded at pleasure.
- 732. To assist in the formation of a good Style, any one of the subjoined may be advantageously adopted:—
 - Southey's "Life of Nelson."
 - 2. De Foe's "Robinson Crusoe."
 - 3. Goldsmith's "Vicar of Wakefield."
 - 4. Prof. John Wilson's "Lights and Shadows of Scottish Life."

For advanced Students, some of the Authors mentioned in the Sixth Period might be selected.

V. ORIGINAL COMPOSITION.

LESSON 109.—Exercise 109.—Page 165.

- 733. Before attempting the regular practice of Original Composition, the acquisition of three things is most desirable, if not absolutely necessary; namely,—1. A sound knowledge of English Grammar; 2. Readiness in the methodical arrangement of your thoughts; 3. Some degree of Familiarity with Good Models.
- 1. As Accuracy of Expression must obviously form the proper foundation for all real excellence in Composition, your first step should be to obtain a thorough mastery of the rules and principles of Grammar and Style, as explained in this work, and carried out in its companion volume of Exercises. So long as these are only imperfectly known, difficulty and uncertainty will be experienced in the application of them, and erroneousness of expression be the probable result. Rules intended to influence expression should be so accurately and strongly impressed on the memory, as to suggest themselves, instinctively as it were, whenever required. To acquire this accuracy is evidently a work of time and labour; but till this is accomplished, every other study should, for a time, be in a measure subordinate.
- 2. To promote readiness in the Methodical Arrangement of the thoughts, as well as correctness of expression, a Preparatory Course of Composition should be commenced simultaneously with the study of the Grammar and Exercises. In this course, all attempts at forcing the inventive faculty, beyond what the pupil's actual experience and reading will warrant, should be carefully avoided, as ultimately detrimental to solid and permanent excellence. The Exercises should require from each pupil his individual and unassisted exertion, in arranging and expressing his thoughts on subjects level with his comprehension and general attainment, but nothing more. proceeding cautiously and systematically, and aiming at treating each topic in a natural way, the pupil will gradually imbibe the principles of good taste, and beneficially improve whatever talent he may possess. For the furtherance of these views, the volumes of my Practical English Composition were drawn up.
- 3. When sufficient progress has been made in the preceding branches, the student can next enter upon the examination of those authors whose productions supply the best Models for study or imitation. For this purpose, reference must be made to the preceding pages on Style (see 699 to 720); Style at Different Periods (721 to 728); and Study of Good Models (729 to 732).

- 734. We now proceed to offer a few Directions with regard to Original Composition.
- 1. In the First Place, furnish yourself with Materials derived either from careful Observation, or from judicious Reading combined with much Reflection on the subject.
- 2. Then, form in your mind a distinct view of your subject, and what the precise object is at which you are aiming. Afterwards, arrange your Plan, and from your materials Select the most suitable.
- 3. Avoid entering on too wide a field of discussion by introducing more points than you can properly develop. In discussing each point, too, avoid entering too much into detail. By thus limiting your plan, and keeping steadily in view the precise Moral which you especially intend to enforce, or the particular Truths and Facts which you purpose to explain and illustrate, a degree of interest in the subject will be excited in your mind, and the words and expressions which offer themselves on such occasions, in conveying what the mind distinctly sees, will generally be the best. Inaccuracies and violations of rules will, no doubt, occur in your earlier efforts, but these can be removed in a careful revisal.
- 735. During the Act of Composition, let not the current of your thoughts be interrupted from want of a proper word or phrase, but either leave a blank, or take any word that presents itself, and overline or otherwise mark it to be afterwards corrected. When you have finished, lay the composition aside for a few days, that, your particular attachment for it having subsided, you may be the better enabled to make such alterations as a critical examination may suggest.
- 786. In every Chapter or Section, steadily aim at accomplishing the following things:—
- 1. Let every idea have a corresponding word. Express each sentiment fully and clearly as you proceed.
- 2. Let the words employed he established English, and not too difficult. Avoid the absurd practice of introducing French and other foreign phrases.
- 3. Avoid all unnecessary repetition either of sentiment or of expression.
- 4. Let each clause occupy an appropriate position in the sentence, and be neatly and compactly constructed.
- 5. Let each sentence contain only one leading thought, and all the circumstances be rendered subordinate to that.

- 6. Let the sequence of the several sentences in each paragraph be natural; and the connection between the several sentences be so tastefully arranged as not to interrupt the easy flow of continuous thought.
- 737. In Revising your Composition, whilst you are careful to alter any passage that is awkward and harsh, as well as those that are feeble and obscure, you must be cautious, lest by attempting to refine and polish, you destroy the force and originality of the expressions. As a General Rule, in your early efforts, it is recommended, merely to correct inaccuracies, and leave a higher degree of polish to be attained by an improvement of the taste resulting from the study of good models and careful practice.
- 738. Ease and elegance in Composition can be obtained, according to the concurrent testimony of eminent Authors, only by much and regular practice, frequent corrections, and numerous copyings. And this testimony is fully corroborated by their own practice.—Pope, the poet, following the plan laid down by Horace, wrote with great care, selected the choicest words, altered, re-altered, and criticised his labours, and revised with great patience.—Bacon transcribed his "Novum Organon" twelve times before publishing it.—Bishop Butler spent thirty years on his "Analogy of Religion" and his "Sermons."—Adam Smith spent ten years at the rate of ten hours each day in composing his "Wealth of Nations," and wrote it over ten times.—Locke spent eighteen years in composing his "Essay on the Understanding." Numerous other instances might be mentioned, to show, that the price of Skill is Patient Labour.

POETRY.

LESSON 110.-Exercise 110.-Page 166.

739. Its Nature.—Poetry may be defined to be "Vivid feelings and conceptions clothed in harmonious language, generally in metre."

740. a. Poetry is produced by various powers common to most perzons, but more especially by those which are almost peculiar to the poet, namely, Fancy, and the crowning spirit—Imagination. This last is the first moving or creating principle of the mind, which fashions, out of materials previously existing, not conceptions and original truths, not absolutely justifiable by the ordinary rules of legic, but quite intelligible to the mind when duly elevated—intelligible through our sympathics and our sensibility.

b. Another quality of poetry is Imagery, by which even abstract ideas and indefinite objects are generally moulded into shape. It is thus, that certain virtues and qualities of the mind are brought visibly before us. Intanimate matter, also, is raised to life, or its essence extracted for some poetical purpose. Thus, the moon becomes a resal, and the night is ciched in a starry train; the side is a monster or a god; the winds and the streams are populous with spirits; and the sun is a giant rejoicing in his strength. Though poetry consists much in imagery, its excellence, of course, must vary in proportion as those images are appropriate and perfect.

741. The Subjects of Poetry.—a. Poetry, with the exception of Satire, deals with the grand, the terrible, the beautiful: but seldom, or never, with the mean. Its principle is elevation, and not depression or degradation. It is true, that in tragedy or narrative. characters and images of the lowest caste are sometimes admitted; but, for the purposes of contrast only, or to "point a moral." Under this view, the stream, the valley, the time-wasted ruin and the mossy cell, the riotous waves and the golden sky, the stars, the storm, and the mad winds, ocean, and the mountain which kisses heaven—Love, Beauty, Despair, Ambition, and Revenge, in short, all the objects of the external and internal world, the face of nature, the vicissitudes of fortune, and all the passions of man, which lift his thoughts from the dust and stir him to madness—almost everything which has in it a strong principle of impulse or elevation, belongs to the province of poetry.

b. The meaner things of life, its tameness and medicerity, its selfishness, entry, and repining, though sublued occasionally to the use of poetry, are too base for an alliance with it; and creep on, from age to age, recorded indeed, and immortalized, but for the sake of example only, and trampled under the feet of the line.

- c. As the object of poetry is not to diminish and make mean, but to magnify and aggrandize, it never dwarfs the great statures of nature, nor reduces the spirit to the contemplation of humble objects. Its standards are above, and not below, mortality. In its choice of subjects, art will be preferred to science; and nature, to both.
- d. Occasionally, indeed, the poorest things have been exalted and placed on a level with the loftiest, but we shall find, on close examination, that most, if not all of these instances, are unavailable; that the things spoken of derive their importance, not from themselves, but from the relation which they bear to matters of higher moment.
- 742. The Language of Poetry.—In Poetry, the language, except when we intend to degrade, should not be technical, common, or colloquial, because sounds which we hear on common occasions, do not usually make strong impressions or convey delightful images; while words, to which we are nearly strangers, whenever they occur, draw that attention to themselves which they should convey to things. A certain strength and nobleness of style, particularly in the higher departments of poetry, are so essential, that a poem, which has both invention and enthusiasm in the highest degree, would be ridiculous, if the language were cold and feeble.
- 743. The Intention of Poetry.—a. Poetry is calculated to instruct and reprove, as well as to please and persuade.
- b. It has been asserted, that the object of poetry is, to please; and certainly, this is one, though by no means the sole object of the art. It has also been said, that although, in moral poetry, improvement may be blended with amusement, the latter is, nevertheless, the object. This opinion, however, we consider to be erroneous. In the case of didactic poetry, such as, the "Essay on Man," or, "The Art of Preserving Health," the aim is instruction, and verse is but the medium or the attraction which the poet employs. In salire, the object is not to please a friend, but to sting an enemy; the prophecies, also, of the Bible must be admitted to have had an object beyond pleasure. The war-songs of the ancients were to stimulate the soldier; and their laments were to scothe regret. Poetry contains a strong stimulant; and although a feeling of pleasure may blend with other emotions, it does not follow, that the attempts of poetry are not directed to objects different from those of merely "pleasing." It is, therefore, as we have stated, calculated to instruct and reprove, as well as to please and persuade.
 - 744. The Origin and Progress of Poetry.—a. On this part of our subject, we cannot do better than furnish our readers with the graphic detail given by Sir Walter Scott, in his Introductory Remarks on Popular Poetry. "When the organs and faculties of a primitive race have developed themselves, each for its proper and necessary use, there is a natural tendency to employ them in a more refined and regular manner for purposes of amusement and persuasion. The savage, after proving the activity of his limbs in the chase or the battle, trains them to more measured movements, to dance at the festivals of his tribe, or to perform obeisance before the altars of his deity. From the same impulse, he is disposed to refine the ordinary speech which forms the vehicle of social communication between himself and his brethren, until, by a more ornate diction, modulated by certain rules of rhythm, cadence, assonance of termination, or recurrence of sound or letter, he obtains a dialect more solemn in expression, to record the laws or exploits of his tribe, or more sweet in sound, in which to plead his own cause to the object of his affection.
 - b. "It is not probable that, by any researches of modern times, we shall ever reach back to an earlier model of poetry than Homer; but, as there lived heroes before Agamemnon, so, unquestionably, poets existed before the immortal bard who gave the King of kings his fame; and he whom all civilized nations now acknowledge as the Father of Poetry, must have himself looked back to an

ancestry of poetical predecessors, and is held original only because we know not from whom he copied. Indeed, though much must be ascribed to the riches of his own individual genius, the poetry of Hower argues a degree of perfection in an art which practice had olready rendered regular, ond concerning which, his frequent mention of the banks, or chanters, of poetry, indicates plainly, that it was stodled by many, and known and admired by all.

c. "It is, indeed, easily discovered, that the qualities necessary for composing such poems, are not the portion of every man in the tribe; that the bard, to reach excellence in his art, must possess something more than u full command of words and phrases, and the knack of urranging them in such form as ancient examples have fixed upon as the recognized structure of national verse. The tribe speedily becomes sensible, that besides this degree of mechanical facility, which (like making what are called at school nonsense verses) may be attained by mere memory and practice, much higher qualifications are demunded. A keen and octive power of observation, capable of perceiving, ot a glance, the leading circumstances from which the incident described derives its character; quick and powerful feelings, to enable the bard to comprehend and delineate those of the actors in his piece; oud o command of language, alternately soft and elevated, and suited to express the conceptions which he had formed in his mind, are all necessary to eminence in the poetical art.

"Above all, to uttain the highest point of his profession, the poet must have that original power of embodying and detailing circumstances, which can place before the eyes of others a scene which exists only in his own imagination. This last high and creative faculty, namely, that of impressing the mind of the heavers with scenes and sentiments having no existence save through their ort, has procured for the bards of Greece the term of Hongris, which, as it singularly lappens, it literally translated by the Scottish epithet for the same class of persons, whom they termed the Makers. The French phrase of Trouveurs, or Troobadours, namely, the Finders or Inventors, has the same reference to the quality of original conception and invention proper to the poetical art, and without which it can hardly be said to exist to any pleasing or useful purpose.

"The mere urrangement of words into poetical rhythm, or combining them according to a technical rule or measure, is so closely connected with the art of music, that an alliance between these two fine arts is very soon closely formed. It is fruitless to enquire which of them was first invented, since, doubtless, the precedence was accidental; and it signifies little whether the murician adapts verses to o made tune, or whether the primitive poet, in reciting his productions, falls nuturally into a chant or tong. With this additional accomplishment, the poet becomes the man of song, and his character is complete when the additional accompaniment of a lote or harp is added to his yocal performance.

- d. "Here, therefore, we have the history of early poetry in all nations. But it is evident that, though poetry seems a plant proper to almost all soils, yet nouly is it of various kinds, according to the climate and country in which it has its origin, hot the poetry of different nations differs still more widely in the degree of excellence which it ottains. This most depend, in some measure, no doubt, on the temper and manners of the people, or their proximity to those spirit-stirring exents which are naturally relected as the subject of poetry, and on the more comprehensive or energetic character of the language spoken by the tribe. But the progress of the art is far more dependent upon the rise of some highly-gifted individual, possessing, in a pre-eminent degree, the powers demanded, whose talents infloence the taste of a whole nation, and entail on their posterity and language a character almost indelibly sacred. In this respect, Homer stands alone and unrivalled, as a light from whose lamp the gentus of accessive ages, and of distant nations, has coaght fire and fillumination; and who, though the early poet of o rade age, has purchased for the era he has celebrated, so much reverence, that, not daring to bestow upon it the term of barbarous, we distinguish it as the herole period."—Scott Minterly, vol. 1.
- c. In the first ages of society, poetry was not confined merely to the celebration of the praises of the Deity, and of the valorous octions of beroes; for philosophers employed it to communicate the lessons of wisdom, and statesmen, to promulgate the dictates of law. Thus, Apollo, Orpheus, and Amplaion, ancient bards, are represented at the first tamers of mankind, the first founders of law and civilization. Minos and Thales sang to the sound of the lyre the laws which they composed; and, till the age immediately preceding that of Herodottus, history has appeared in no other form that hat of pectical tales.

LESSON 111.—Exercise 111.—Page 166.

745. Hebrew Poetry.—a. Music and poetry were early cultivated among the Hebrews, as several songs of rejoicing are recorded in the books of Moses. In the days of the Judges, mention is made of the schools or colleges of the prophets; where one part of the employment of the persons trained in such schools was to sing the praises of God, accompanied with various instruments. But, in the days of King David, music and poetry were carried to their greatest height. For the service of the tabernacle, he appointed four thousand Levites, divided into twenty-four courses, and marshalled under several leaders, whose sole business it was to sing hymns, and to perform the instrumental music in the public worship.

746. a. The distinctive feature of Hebrew poetry was a symmetrical disposition of the sentences, which were cast into parallel verses of equal length, and correspondent in sense and sound; the sentiment expressed in the first distich being repeated and amplified in the second, as in the following examples:—

- "The Lord rewardeth me according to my righteonsness."
- 2. " According to the cleanness of my hand He hath recompensed me."
- 1. " The fear of the Lord is clean, enduring for ever:"
- 2. "The judgments of the Lord are pure and righteous altogether."
- b. The origin of this form of poetical composition among the Hebrews, is clearly to be deduced from the manner in which their sacred hymns were accustomed to be sung. They were accompanied with music, and were performed by choirs or bands of singers and musicians, who answered alternately to each other. When, for instance, one band began the hymn thus:—

"The Lord reigneth, let the earth rejoice:"

The chorus, or semichorus, took up the corresponding versicle: thus,

"Let the multitude of the isles be glad thereof."

"Clouds and darkness are round about Him:"-

sang the one; the other replied,-

"Judgment and rightcousness are the habitation of His throne."

And in this manner their poetry, when set to music, naturally divided itself into a succession of strophes and auti-strophes correspondent to each other; whence, it is probable, that the practice of responsory, in the public religious service of so many Christian churches, derives its origin.

- 747. a. The Hebrew bards employ few epithets; but the brevity of their style renders its sublimity conspicuous; their imagery is bold and energetic; their fancy is ever rich and exuberant; and to them, metaphors spontaneously arise on every subject, in inexhaustible beauty and fertility.
- b. The figure, however, which, beyond all others, elevates the poetical style of the Scriptures, is the Prosopopeia or Personification; and it is certain, that the personifications of the Sacred Writings excel, in boldness and sublimity, everything that can be found in other works. This is especially the case, when any appearance or operation of the Almighty is concerned.

"Before Him went the pestilence—the waters saw Thee, O God, and were afraid—the mountains saw Thee, and trembled.
—The overflowing of the water passed by; the deep uttered his voice, and lifted up his hands on high." Of the sacred poets, the most distinguished are, the anthor of the Book of Job, David, and the Prophet Isaiah, who is particularly eminent for his sublimity.

748. Of Classical Poetry.—a. It is not certain what species of poetry was first cultivated in Greece. Fables were, undoubtedly, of great antiquity; the ode formed a part of religious worship; and the pastoral must have been introduced in an age sufficiently refined to relish simplicity. The "Iliad" and "Odyssey" of Homer were composed at an early epoch of Grecian literature, and transmitted by oral tradition to a more polished age. Of ancient poets, Homer may be considered as peculiarly the poet of nature. The other principal Grecian poets are, Pindar, Anacreon, Aristoph'anes, Æschylus, Euripides, and Sophöcles.

b. The Roman poets were modelled on those of Greece; the principal are, Lucretius, Terence, Horace, Virgil, Ovid, Tibullus, Lucan, Juyenal, and Persius.

749. Of the Rise and Progress of the Drama.—The heroic ode was the source from which the regular drama was produced. Tragedy originated in the hymns sung in honeur of Bacchus, to whom was sacrificed a goat, and from the name of the victim, rajor, a goat, joined with dog, a song, is derived the word Tragedy. The invention of the dialogue and action belongs to Eschylus; the original ode was preserved in the chorus, which constituted the popular part of the cutertainment. The chorus, like the band of a modern orchestra, was composed of several persons, who recited in a different manner from the other performers. Their business was to deduce from the passing scene some lesson of merality, or to inculcate on the spectator some religious precept.

750. Comedy, like tragedy, originally consisted of a cherus, which derived its name from the god Comus. The rudiments of the art may, it is thought, be detected in the satyr, a cort of interlude annexed to tragedies, in which the scene was moral, and the personages, satyrs or sylvan deitles. It was not till the time of Aristophänes, that living characters were introduced on the stage. The conedies of Aristophanes are full of the most personal satire and malignity against the greatest men that ever graced the nanals of Athens. This abuse was, however, afterwards corrected, and the comedies of Menander, which were afterwards imitated by Terence, exhibited interesting scenes of domestic life. The chorus was gradually changed into the prologue, intended to apprize the spectators of all they were to see on the stage.

751. The origin of all the European theatres may be traced to a sind of extempore farce, performed by idle people, strolling about from town to town and acting in places of public resort. These buffeoneries were, in the fifteenth century, succeeded by the Mysteries, in which Adam and Eve, the Patriarchs, the Prophets, the Virgin Mary, our Saviour, His Aportics, and God himself, were brought upon the stage, and, according to our ideas, frequently represented in the most ridiculous and impions manner. At that time, however, it was thought no profanation to indulge in such ammements. Accordingly, a play at first was considered only as a supplement to the religious duties, and was acted in the churchyards, and even in churches, when the priests took an active part. The Mysterics were, in England, succeeded by another species of dramatic entertainment, called the Moralities, in which the virtnes and vices of marking were personlifed, and introduced on the stage. In the sixteenth century, however, these mummeries gave place to the productions of Massinger, Beaumont, Fletcher, Jonson, and the immortal Shakrycare.

- 752. Origin of Modern Poetry.—a. The Gothic nations, which overran the Roman Empire, although ignorant of the polite arts, were not insensible to the charms of poetry. Their bards were not less venerated than their priests; and whatever instruction they received, whatever knowledge they possessed, was communicated in metre, and probably in rhyme. In the age of Charlemagne, the minstrels of Provence, or, as they were called, the *Troubadours*, introduced the metrical tales or ballads in rhyme, which, from the dialect in which they were written, acquired the name of *Romances*.
- b. The profession of a minstrel was held in great reverence among the Saxon tribes, as well as among their Danish brethren. The first compositions of the minstrels appear to have been unadorned annals or histories, composed in rhyme, for the convenience of the reciter, who had to retain them in his memory.

LESSON 112.—Exercise 112.—Page 167.

- 753. a. A brief Sketch of English Poetry.—With the exception of some ballads of doubtful date, nothing that can truly be called poetry appeared before the days of Chaucer (A.D. 1390). Chaucer's predecessors were the mere pioneers of literature. They cleared the way, perhaps, a little, by inventing a rude metre, or adopting, from foreign romances, a measure which became not the English tongue; but they possessed little more than a mechanical power. They could not rise above the obstacles of the age, nor pierce through the mists that lay around them. Chaucer followed, and raised poetry from the dust. He has been properly designated the Father of English poetry.
- b. The only poets of celebrity from Chaucer to the period when Spenser wrote, are Henry Howard (Earl of Surrey), Thomas Sackville (Lord Buckhurst), and Sir Philip Sidney. The Earl of Surrey was, perhaps, our first writer of narrative blank verse. Sackville was the author of "Ferrex Porrex," our first regular tragic play, and also of several other pieces. Sir Philip Sidney's poetry is characteristic of the times in which he lived. It is full of conceits and strained similes, and the versification is occasionally cramped.
- 754. Spenser, b. 1553, d. 1598.—These writers were succeeded by the celebrated Edmund Spenser, author of the "Faerie Queene." Possessing a vivid fancy, and an almost illimitable invention, he was the very genius of personification. He drew up shape after shape, scene after scene, castle and lake, woods and caverns, monstrous anomalies, and beautiful impossibilities,

from the unfathomable depths of his mind. His allegories, however, are often extravagant, and his obsolete language renders him frequently obscure. (See 722. c.)

755. SHAKSPEARE, b. 1564, d. 1616.—Nearly contemporary with Spenser, lived Shallspeare, the greatest of poets, and, deservedly, the pride of his country. "Shakspeare," says Johnson, "is above all writers, at least above all modern writers, the poet of nature; the poet that holds up to his readers a faithful mirror of manners and of life. His characters are not modified by the customs of particular places, unpractised by the rest of the world; by the peculiarities of studies or professions, which can operate but upon small numbers, nor, by the accidents of transient fashions or temporary opinions: they are the genuine progeny of common humanity, such as the world will always supply, and observation will always find. His persons act and speak by the influence of those general passions and principles by which all minds are agitated, and the whole system of life is continued in motion. In the writings of other poets, a character is too often an individual; in those of Shakspeare, it is commonly a species."

He displays an almost unlimited comprehensiveness of mind, fertility of imagination, and range of observation. "He has," continues Johnson, "no heroes; his scenes are occupied only by men, who act and speak as the reader thinks that he should himself have spoken or acted on the same occasion; even where the agency is supernatural, the dialogue is level with life. Other writers generally disguise the most natural passions, and most frequent incidents; so that he who contemplates them in the book, will not know them in the world: Shakspeare approximates the remote, and familiarizes the wonderful: the event which he represents will not happen, but if it were possible, its effects would probably be such as he has assigned; and it may be said, that he has not only shown human nature as it acts in real exigencies, but as it would be found in trials to which it cannot be exposed." (See 722. d.)

Between Shakspeare and Milton lived Ben Jonson, Beaumont, Fletcher, Herrick, and Cowley, and also several others of less importance. (See 722. d.)

750. Militon, b. 1608, d. 1674.—a. Milton has been justly characterized as the most learned of our poets. No poem evinces so much profound erudition as the "Paradise Lost." "The learning of all ages," says Dr. Stebbing, "the opinions of the wisest men, the superstitions of the most benighted nations, the truths of philosophy and science, and the most solemn mysteries of religion, were all explored by this great unthor, and he poured out the whole vast treasure of his mind

into the golden vase his imagination had formed. With him the love of truth was the offspring of a tranquil but noble soul, and from the dawning of his mind, it was the object he most earnestly sought. But he sought it chiefly among books, or among those who derived their materials of thinking solely from them. One consequence of this was the subjection of passion, thought, and feeling, to memory; and there is, therefore, to be discovered no beauty of a sentimental kind, even in his freshest and earliest poems. The same cause will also account for the absence of that heart-reaching, spiritual eloquence with which poetry sometimes awakens us. There are scarcely any thoughts to be found in Milton which can be ascribed to his sympathy with individual suffering, or to his consideration of human nature in its simple but deep workings. He gave himself no time for this unencumbered view of humanity. He sought the true philosophy of nature, but it was in the history of sects and kingdoms; and he learned to excite wonder, but not passion. Whatever, therefore, might have been the tendencies of his nature, truth in his poetry is reflected and not primitive truth; the truth which learning searches for and discovers, not what every heart feels and recognizes."

- b. But Milton possessed an imagination of the highest order, a genius daring as it was great. He did not, indeed, seek for a theme amidst ordinary passions, with which men must sympathize, or in literal facts, which the many might comprehend; but, on the contrary, he plunged at once through the deep, and ventured to the very gates of heaven for creatures with which to people his story. Even when he descended upon earth, it was not to select from the common materials of humanity; but he dropped at once upon Paradise, awoke Adam from the dust, painted the primitive purity of woman, and the erect stature and unclouded aspect of man. He displays a grandeur of conception, a breadth of character, and a towering spirit, pervading the whole of his subject, almost unparalleled in any other poet. He is, perhaps, the greatest epic poet in the world. (See 723. b.)
- 757. DRYDEN, b. 1631, d. 1700.—a. Shortly after Milton, appeared Dryden. As a keen satirist, and as a writer of sensible, masculine verse, few, if any, snrpass him. But, as a poet, he is of a different order from those who adorned the reigns of Elizabeth and James, and occupies, decidedly, a lower step. He was a writer of shrewd sarcasm, and of excellent good sense; but he was deficient in imagination, in pathos, and in nature, to constitute him a poet of the highest order. Of Dryden, however, it may be said, that he formed the language, and improved the melody of English verse. (See 723. b.)

- b. Contemporary with Dryden, lived Lee. Shortly afterwards flourished Dorset, John Phillips, Ronce, Parnell, Garth, Addison, Prior, Vanbrugh, Congreve, Gay, and the well-known Alexander Pope.
- 758. Pope, b. 1688, d. 1744.—a. Pope had the same good sense, the same stinging sarcasm as his predecessor Dryden, but he had greater refinement, and clearer views of morality. He shot his sharp arrows at the heart of the proud man and the knave, the time-server and the hypocrite; he spared neither rank, nor sex, nor age, if it were impudent and profligate. He was the head of what may be termed the artificial school of poetry. His poetry is characterized by a most melodious versification; splendid diction, and copious imagery, but with none of the higher attributes of creative intellect. It contains passages of great pathos, piercing satire, apposite antithetical illustrations, and admirably turned compliment. (See 724. b.)
- b. Next, in order of time, but far inferior in merit, we may mention Swift, a stern, shrewd, and sarcastic writer of verse; and Thomson, who looked on Nature with an easy but observant eye, and transcribed her varying wonders to man; Young, known for his "Night Thoughts;" Churchill, a coarse and immoral satirist; Shenstone, Akenside, and Armstrong, are minor poets; Goldsnith and Gray are distinguished, not, perhaps, for any great powers of imagination or fancy, but for their elegance and simplicity of expression. (See 725. b.)
- 759. Cowper, b. 1731, d. 1800.—During the eighteenth century, poetry had become feeble and mechanical, principally arising from an imitation of the monotonous versification which Pope had introduced. At last, Cowper, disdaining to deal in the mechanical versification and nerveless common-place poetry which were the fashion of his day, sought for inspiration in noble and affecting subject, fertile in images, and which had not yet been hackneyed;—that subject was Religion. To Cowper, sick of the languid manner of his contemporaries, ruggedness seemed a venial fault, or rather a positive merit. In his hatred of meretricious ornament, and of what he calls "creamy smoothness," he erred on the opposite side. His style was too austere, his versification too harsh. But it is not easy to overrate the service which he rendered to literature. He was the forerunner of a noble race of poets. Wordsworth, Byron, Coleridge, Southey, Scott, Campbell. Moore, and Montgomery, have consummated what he began—a revolution in English poetry. (See 726. b.)

THE STUDY OF POETRY.

LESSON 113.—Exercise 113.—Page 167.

- 760. a. The Advantages resulting from a judicious study of Poetry.—Several reasons concur in recommending Poetry as a subject deserving the study of all, and particularly of the young. 1st. It enlarges the understanding, and improves the taste. We hope the student distinctly bears in mind, that true poetry is not mere rhyme, nor mere metre—but a creative energy, which combines into new forms, and imparts to material objects or abstract ideas—life, and sentiment, and emotion. Rightly and fully, then, to comprehend and relish the frequently compressed arguments, the mythological or historical allusions, the moral, scientific, or philosophical traths contained in the productions of our best poets, disciplines and instructs, as well as delights the mind. For, a person must think to understand. This is one reason, that mere rhymers are generally preferred to real poets by common readers, who either cannot or will not think, and seek amusement rather than instruction. Even men possessed of some scientific knowledge, but who are unaccustomed to read poetry, frequently affix the most ludicrous construction to passages sufficiently intelligible to welleducated youths of thirteen or fourteen years of age.—The attentive reader of good poetry will frequently be struck, not merely by the sentiment, but by the mode of expression. He will find that the thoughts are not only distinctly expressed, but expressed in the fewest words possible, so as to produce a strong and lasting impression.
- b. 2nd. An individual, whose mind has been properly instructed, can, when he is fatigued by the turnoil of business, or depressed by the vicisitudes of fortune, find nothing more cheering than to wander in the fields of poetry. Far from the dusty and busy haunts of men, he is here transported to a brighter and nobler scene. Here he cujoys an unclouded sky, a purer atmosphere, fields that are ever green, and flowers that never decay. Hill and dale, river and wood, the gently flowing stream, and the roaring torront, are all presented in due proportion, to please the eye and gratify the heart. Here he holds converse with the sons of heaven-born intellect, becomes warmed by their descriptions, wiser by their counsels, and ennobled by their sentiments.
- c. 3rd. But Poetry has a still greater claim to our attention. It is highly conducive to morality; for, when noble thoughts and virtuous principles are presented to the mind, clothed in all the fascinations of verse, can we doubt that they will make a permanent impression upon the mind and heart? True it is, that we have many poems abounding with verses of a most immoral nature, but, it is equally true, that we have numerous other poems breathing the purest and most exalted sentiments, in language the most engaging and persuasive. Are we not, then, acting in accordance with the dietates of sound wisdom, in availing ourselves of so powerful an auxiliary to virtuous actions, in thus storing up, against the day of temptation, feelings of purity, and gentleness, and high aspirings? The prophet Mosz when escaped from the host of Pharaoh, David the sweet singer of Israel, the sublime Isalah, and the pathetic Jeremiah, gave utterance to their feelings of joy, of gratitude, and of devotion, in all the power and harmony of verse; nor did the disciples of the lowly Jesus neglect to celebrate, in "pealms, and hymns, and spiritual songs," the high praises of their great Redeemer. In fact, to the power of poetry, all ages, and all countries, the rudest as well as the most enlightened, bear witness. Since its first great masterpleces were produced, everything that is changeable in this world has been changed. Religions, and impranges, and forms of government, and usages of private life, and modes of thinking, all have undergone a succession of revolutions. Everything has passed away but the great features of nature, the heart of man, and the miracles of poetry. "The Poems of Homer," observes Lord Macaulay in the "Edinburgh Review," "The Womder of ninety generations, still retain all their freshness. They still command the veneration of minds, enriched by the literature of many nations and ages. Having survived ten thousand capticious fashions, having seen successive codes of criticism become obsolete, they still remain, immo

76L a. With respect to the mode in which the study of Poetry ought to be conducted, we shall quote the indicious remarks of a very intelligent writer in the "Journal of Education," No. 6. His words are as follow:—"It is to youths whose minds are awakening from the dreams of childhood, whose imaginations are kindling with the glow of enthusiasm, but whose powers of reason are yet too weak sufficiently to temper and chasten their feelings, that the study of Poetry offers peculiar attractions; and it is precisely with such that, according as the models and examples presented to them are or are not judiciously relacted. that study may prove an instrument of much good or evil in the formation of character. A youth of ardeut temperament, whose taste has already been somewhat formed by an ocquaintance with the better class of prose compositions, can hardly fail to have that taste refined by acquiring a competent knowledge of our standard poets. As a means of imparting this knowledge, the judicious parent or instructor will not hesitate to uvail himself of some well-chesen selection, rather than place entire works in the hands of his pupil; and this course will be chosen, as much with the view of bringing together for exemplification and contrast, the various beanties of style and centiment exhibited in different unthors, as of excluding all passages whose tendency is gross or demoralizing; it being too frequently seen that the noblest sentiments, the most refined poetleal taste, and the purest morality, are associated in the same volume, with meanness, shalder, and valgariey. In thus recommending a utetion from the Works of our poets for the use of students, we must not be suspected of sanctioning a similar course with regard to other branches of knowledge. The cases, in fact, are wholly dissimilar, since much of the poetry which we would wish to be read, has no particular connection with other portions of the volume from which it is taken. But, were it otherwise, such an inconvenience would be more than counterbalanced by the advantage on the score of morality to which we have here adverted.—(Hugher's "Selections from the Poets" can be strongly recommended.)

b. "To produce all the good effects which this course of study may be rendered capable of yielding, it will not be enough that poetical composition, however excellent, be merely placed in the hands of the scholar, or that the instructor should content himself with hearing a certain number of verses periodically read by his pupil;—a task which we are well aware may be performed with great propriety of emphasis and intountion, while, at the same time, the reader continues insensible to all the real beauties of the outhor. To produce any lasting or beneficial impression, readings of poetry should be accompanied by remarks, both critical and explanatory, on the part of the tutor; reculiarlist and leauties, whether of language or centiment, should be pointed out; imperfections must be noticed; and the dyle of one nutbor placed in contrast with that of anothers. By such means the mind of the pupil will be opened, his critical perceptions will be awakened and exercised, and his taste and judgment cannot fall to be improved." (See Courses of Study in Poetry, 781, 782; and also, Wordsnorth's valuable "Essay on Poets and Poetry," affixed to his Poems.)

OF THE DIFFERENT SPECIES OF POETRY.

LESSON 114.—Exercise 114.—Page 167.

- 762. a. Pastoral Poetry.—Pastoral Poetry is a description of rural objects: it recalls to our imaginations those gay scenes and pleasing views of nature, which are commonly the delight of our childhood and youth; and to which, in more advanced years, men generally recur with pleasure.
- b. Amidst rural objects, nature presents, on all hands, the first field for description; and nothing appears to flow more of its own accord, into postical numbers, than rivers and mountains, meadows and hills, ficeks and trees, and shepherds void of care. Hence, this species of poetry has, at all times, allered many readers, and excited many writers.
- c. Pastoral Poetry seems not to have been so early cultivated as some of the other species of poetry. It was not till men had begun to be assembled in great cities, after the distinctions of rank and station were formed, that partoral

poetry assumed its present appearance. Men then began to look back with pleasure upon the more simple and innocent life which their forefathersled, or which at least they fancied them to have led, and, imagining a degree of felicity to have taken place in those rural scenes and pastoral occupations superior to what they then enjoyed, conceived the idea of celebrating it in poetry. It was in the court of King Ptolemy, that Theodritus wrote the first Pastorals with which we are acquainted; and, in the court of Augustus, he was imitated by Virgil.

- 763. a. The great charm of Pastoral Poetry arises from the view which it exhibits of the tranquillity and happiness of a rural life. This pleasing illusion, therefore, the poet must carefully sustain. He must display to us all that is agreeable in that state, but hide whatever is displeasing. He must paint its simplicity and innocence to the full, but he must cover its rudeness and misery.
- b. Distresses, indeed, and anxieties, he may attribute to it; but it is the pastoral life, embellished and beautified, or at least seen only on its fairest side, that the poet ought particularly to present to us. In embellishing Nature, he must not altogether disguise her, or join with rural simplicity and happiness, such improvements as are unnatural and foreign to her. If it is not exactly real life which he presents to us, it must, however, have its resemblance.
- 764. a. The scene must always be laid in the country, and distinctly drawn and set before us. A good poet will particularize his objects, and diversify the face of nature, by presenting to us such new images as may correspond with the emotions or sentiments which he describes.
- b. With respect to the characters which ought to be introduced into Pastorals, they must be persons who are wholly engaged in rural occupations. They may be supposed to possess good sense and reflection, sprightliness and vivacity; they may have tender and delicate feelings, since these are, more or less, the portion of men in all ranks of life.

They must not, however, deal in abstract reasoning, and still less in the points and conceits of an affected gullantry; but must speak the language of plain sense, and natural feelings.

- 765. a. The subject of Pastoral Poetry should comprehend the various adventures which give occasion to those engaged in a country life, to display their disposition and temper; the scenes of domestic felicity or disquiet; the attachment of friends and of relatives; the rivalship and competitions of lovers; the unexpected successes or misfortunes of families.
- b. Were the narrative and the sentimental judiciously intermixed with too descriptive in this kind of poetry, it would become much more interesting to the generality of readers.
- c. The "Pastoral Ballad" of Shenstone is considered the best poem of this kind in the English language; and the "Gentle Shepherd" of Allan Ramsay, written in the Scottish dialect, has also obtained great celebrity.

- 766. a. Lyric Poetry.—The term ode signifies, in Greek, the same as song or hymn, and Lyric Poetry implies, that the verses are accompanied with a lyre, or musical instrument.
- b. All Odes may be considered under four denominations. First, Sacred Odes; as, hymns addressed to God, and composed on religious subjects; such are the Psalms of David, which exhibit this species of poetry in the highest degree of perfection. Secondly, Heroic Odes, which are composed in praise of heroes, and in the celebration of martial exploits and great actions. Of this kind are Pindar's Odes, and some few of Horace's. These two kinds ought to have elevation and sublimity for their reigning characters. Thirdly, Moral and Philosophical Odes, where the sentiments are chiefly inspired by virtue, friendship, and humanity. Of this kind are many of the odes of Horace, and several of our best modern Lyrical compositions; and this species may be said to possess a middle station. Fourthly, Festive and Amorous Odes, calculated merely for pleasure and entertainment. Of this nature are all Anacreon's; some of Horace's; and many songs and productions that belong to the Lyric species. The characteristics of these ought to be elegance, smoothness, and gaiety.
- c. In Greek, the principal Lyric poets are, Pindar, Eurip'ides, Soph'öcles, and Anacreon; in Latin, Horace.
- d. In our own language we have several Lyric compositions of considerable merit; among which are, Milton's "L'Allêgro" and "Il Penseroso;" the two rival odes of Pope and Dryden on "St. Cecilia's Day;" Gray's "Bard," "Progress of Poetry," and his "Ode on Eton College;" together with several odes by Collins, Akenside, Cowley, and Gay.
- e. It is not necessary, in the structure of an Ode, that it should be as regular in all its parts as a Didactic or an Epic poem. But there must be a subject; there must be parts which make up a whole; and a connection of those parts with one another. Though the transitions of thought may be light and delicate, such as are prompted by a lively fancy, yet they should be such as preserve the connection of ideas, and show the author to be one who thinks, and not one who rayes.
- 767. a. Didactic Poetry.—The intention of Didactic or Preceptive Poetry is, to convey instruction either in the arts, in morals, or in philosophy.
- By the charm of versification, it renders instruction more agreeable; by the descriptions, episodes, or digressions, and other embellishments which it may interweave, it detains and engages the fancy, and fixes useful facts more deeply on the memory.
- b. In Didactic Poetry, the fundamental qualities consist of sound thought, just principles, and clear and apt illustrations.
- c. The poet must study to relieve and amuse his render, by connecting some agreeable episodes with the principal subject. There is, indeed, nothing in

poetry, either entertaining or descriptive, which a didactic writer of genius may not be allowed to introduce into some part of his work; provided that such episodes rise naturally from the main subject, that they are not disproportioned to it in length, and that the author knows how to descend with propriety to the plain style, as well as how to rise to the bold and the figurative.

- d. The principal Didactic compositions are, the "Georgics" of Virgil, Horace's "Art of Poetry," Pope's "Essay on Criticism," his "Essay on Man," Young's "Night Thoughts," Comper's Poems, and Pollok's "Course of Time."
- 768. a. Satiric Poetry is a species of the Didactic, and professes to have in view the reformation of manners; and, to accomplish this purpose, it boldly censures vice and vicious characters.
- b. Satire is sometimes divided into the jocose and ludicrous, or the serious and declamatory. The poem of "Hudibras," by Buller, is a specimen of the former, and that of the "Dunclad," by Pope, of the latter kind.
- 769. Poetical Epistles are commonly intended as observations on authors, or on life and characters; in delivering which, the poet does not purpose to compose a formal treatise, or to confine himself strictly to regular method; but gives scope to his genius on some particular theme which prompted him to write.

LESSON 115 -- Exercise 115 -- Page 168.

- 770. a. Descriptive Poetry.—Descriptive Poetry enters into every kind of Poetical Composition, Pastoral, Lyric, Didactic, Epic, and Dramatic, and is generally introduced as an embellishment. There are, however, some poems which are professedly descriptive; the principal of which are, Denham's "Cooper's Hill," Dyer's "Grongar Hill," Thomson's "Seasons," Gold-emith's "Deserted Village" and "Traveller," Parnell's "Hermit," Rogers' "Pleasures of Memory," and Campbell's "Pleasures of Hope."
- b. In description, a true poet makes us imagine that we have the objects before our eyes; he catches the distinguishing features; he gives them the colours of life and reality; he places them in such a light, that a painter could copy after him.
- c. This happy talent is chiefly owing to a lively fancy, and to a habit of keen observation, by which the mind first receives a lively impression of the object, and then by employing a proper selection of circumstances in describing it, transmits that impression, in its full force, to the imagination of others.
- d. In the telection of circumstances lies the great art of picturesque description. In the first place, they cought not to be rulgar and common ones, such as are apt to be passed by without remark; but, as much as possible, new and original, which may catch the lancy, and draw attention. In the next place, they ought to be such as particularize the object described, and mark it strongly. No description, that rests in generals, can be good. For we can perceive nothing clearly in the abstract; all distinct ideas are formed into particulars. In the third place, all circumstances employed ought to be uniform, and of a piece;

that is, when you are describing a great object, every circumstance brought into view should tend to aggrandize; or, when describing a gay and pleasant one, should tend to beautify; that, by this means, the impression may rest upon the imagination complete and entire. Ladly, the circumstances in description should be expressed with concisences and simplicity; for, when either too much exaggented, or too long dwelt upon and extended, they never fall to weaken the impression that is designed to be made.

e. The poems of Sir Walter Scott, Campbell, Goldsmith, and Byron, abound with beautiful and masterly descriptions.

771.—Epic Poctry.—An Epic poem is a narration, and, in part, a dramatic representation, of some important enterprize. Epic poetry, however, differs essentially from all pieces composed for scenic exhibition. Compassion is the great object of Tragedy, and ridicule the province of Comedy; but the predominant character of the Epic is, admiration excited by heroic actions. Dramatic writing displays characters chiefly by means of sentiments and passions; Epic poetry, chiefly by means of actions: the emotions, therefore, are more prolonged and less violent than those excited by Dramatic composition.

772. In an Epic poem there are three objects to be considered, the Action, the Actors, and the Narrative.

a. First, it is necessary that the action should be one.

For, unity of action in every composition makes a stronger impression on the mind, than a number of incidents which have no connection with one another. It must not be a slight unity, as the action of one man, but a strict connection, a train of means pointing to some end; so, the main end of the "Æneld" is the establishment of Æneas in Italy; in the "Olyssey," it is the return of Ulysses to Ithaca; and, in the "Hind," the effects of the resentment of Achilles.

b. The unity of the Epic action does not, however, exclude the introduction of all *Episodes* or subordinate actions or incidents which are not essential to the main action, provided they are related to, or connected with it.

Thus, the interview of Hector with Androm'sche in the "Had," the story of Nisus and Eurjalus in the "Engid," are episodes. Episodes should, however, flow maintally from the subject, present objects different from any other in the poem, and be elegant and well finished.

- c. An Epic action must be great: that is, it must have sufficient splendour and importance, both to fix our attention and to justify the magnificent colouring which the poet bestows upon it. It must, likewise, be interesting, and not of modern date.
- d. With regard to the time or duration of the Epic action, no precise limit can be assigned.

A considerable extent is always allowed to it, as it does not necessarily depend on those violent passions which can be supposed to have only a short continuance.

- 773. a. The Personages or Actors introduced into an Epic poem must be suitable, and their characters must be consistent with themselves, and be well supported.
- b. It is not necessary that all the actors be morally good; imperfect, nay, vicious characters, may find in it a proper place, though the principal figures exhibited should be such astend to raise admiration and love, rather than hatred or contempt.
- 774. a. In the Narrative of the poem, the poet may either relate the whole story in his own character, or introduce some of his personages to relate any part of the action that has passed before the poem opens. The whole of the narrative must be perspicuous, animated, and enriched with all the beauties of poetry; for, in Epic poetry, we expect everything that is sublime in description, tender in sentiment, and bold and lively in expression. And, therefore, if an author is destitute of affecting scenes, and deficient in poetical colouring, he can have no success. The ornaments which Epic poetry admits, must all be of the grave and chaste kind. Nothing that is loose, ludicrous, or affected, finds any place there. All the objects which it presents ought to be either great, or tender, or pleasing.
- b. The principal Epic poets are, Homer, Virgil, Tasso, and Millon.
- 775. Tragedy and Comedy.—Tragedy is an exhibition of the characters and behaviour of men in some of the most trying and critical situations of life, and describes their passions, virtues, crimes, and sufferings. Tragedy, when properly written, points out to men the consequences of their own actions, shows the direful effects which ambition, jealousy, love, resentment, and other strong emotions, when misguided or left unrestrained, produce upon human life.
- 776. Comedy is sufficiently discriminated from Tragedy by its general spirit and strain. While pity and terror, with the other strong passions, form the province of the latter, the chief, or rather the sole instrument of the former, is ridicule. Comedy aims at correcting improprieties and follies of behaviour, by giving us pictures taken from among ourselves, by exhibiting to the age a faithful copy of itself, and by satirizing the predominant vices.

^{777.} a. The Epigram and the Epitaph.—The word Epigram originally meant an inscription which was generally engraved or written on pillars, porches, or the pedestals or bases of statues; but it now signifies a short and witty poetical com-

position, the point or humour of which is expressed in the latter lines.

b. Though the epigram is, in general, applicable only to topics of mirth and gaiety, yet, even the most serious subjects have sometimes been agreeably presented in this form. The epigram of Dr. Doddridge, on the words "Dum ricimus ricamus," ("While we live, let us live,") is well known.

"Live while you live, the epicure would say, And grasp the pleasures of the passing day; Live while you live, the sacred preacher cries, And give to God each moment as it files;— Lord, in my view let both united be! I live in pleasure, while I live to Thee."

778. The Epitaph is nearly allied to the epigram, and has a similar derivation, meaning, literally, an inscription. Like the epigram, too, it was originally very simple in its structure, consisting frequently of a single line, or even of a few words, which served to attract the notice of the passer-by.

In a good Epitaph, the name, and something of the character, of the deceased should be introduced; but every thing that is fulsome, light, or trifling, should be avoided.

770. The Elegy.—The term Elegy was formerly applied to the funeral monody, but, at present, it includes all plaintive strains. The elegiac stanza is generally written in verses of five feet, or ten syllables, as in Gray's celebrated "Elegy in a Country Churchyard;" sometimes, however, it is exchanged for a lighter strain, as in Cowper's "Alexander Selkirk."

780. The Sonnet.—The Sonnet is derived from the Italian school, and has, at different periods, been much cultivated in this country. In its original form it consisted of fourteen lines, and this form is still preserved in what are esteemed true sonnets.

781. Courses of Study in Poctry:-

1. Elementary.

1. Watts's "Divine Songs." Then, Jane Taylor's Poems.

2. Juvenile.

2. { a. Payne's "Select Poetry for Children;"—or, b. Cook's "First Book of Poetry."

3. Middle.

a. Hughes's "Select Specimens of English Poetry;" an excellent selection.
b. Cook's "Second Book of Poetry;" the Extracts in chronological order.

4. The Upper Classes.

- a. Readings in Poetry, with notices of the Authors.
 b. {Graham's "Studies from the English Poets;"—or, Payne's "Studies in Poetry," with short notices.
- 5. Cowper's "Task," "Table Talk," &c.
- Readings from Shakspeare, containing 9 Plays.

782 .- 5. For Advanced Students.

- 1. Saiken's Poets, containing the principal Poets entire; or, Campbell's Poets, containing large selections with criticisms; or, the principal Poets entire; namely,
- 2. Shakspeare's Plays, portions of; or, Bowdler's edition.
- 3. Milton's " Paradise Lost." An annotated edition,
- 4. Pope's Poems. Macready's expurgated edition.
- 5. Goldsmith's "Traveller" and "Deserted Village."
- 6. Cowper's "Task," &c.
- 7. Scott's "Marmion," &c.
- 8. Wordsworth's "Exeursion," &c.
- 9. Crabbe's Poems.

ADVICE TO THE STUDENT

ON THE MENTAL HABITS NECESSARY FOR THE ATTAINMENT, BETENTION, AND READY APPLICATION OF KNOWLEDGE.

Lessons 116 to 120.

In concluding this work, I have thought it advisable to present the young student with a few hints on the Mental Habits which are necessary for the Attainment, Retention, and Ready Application of Knowledge. The utility of inserting in this place any observations calculated to enforce attention to these subjects will, it is hoped, be so obvious, as to supersede the necessity for adducing any arguments in favour of such a mode.

LESSON 116.—Exercise 129.—Page 187.

I. ON THE ATTAINMENT OF KNOWLEDGE.

In treating of this subject, I shall consider first, The mental habits which obstruct; and, secondly, Those which contribute to advance the Attainment of Knowledge.

1. MENTAL HABITS WHICH ODSTRUCT OUR PROGRESS.

1. The first great obstacle to all advancement in knowledge is, the pursuit of a multiplicity of subjects at once.

When we are hurried from subject to subject, bestowing a little time on this and a little on that, our attention is divided, and our energies become enfeebled; sufficient time is not allowed for forming clear ideas upon any one subject, the impressions made upon the mind are faint, and, of course, transient; we thus become confused, and as no progress is made, no satisfaction can be derived.

In no respect, therefore, is wisdom more evinced than in knowing what things we ought to attempt, and to what extent we can go. Thus, what might be proper for one who has the disposal of his own time, would be the very reverse to another who is not so favoured. In either case, our rule holds good. For, the more numerous are

the subjects which a man pursues, under any circumstances, the less time he has to bestow on each, and the less improvement he will, consequently, make. By aiming at too much, he may lose all.

On the contrary, by confining our attention for a time to those

On the contrary, by confining our attention for a time to those subjects which are the most important, and which are the foundation of others, our progress will be certain if not rapid; and having tasted the pleasure of success, we shall enter, with an accelerated desire, upon the pursuit of others. This has been the method adopted by all those men who have been distinguished for profound and varied knowledge. By aiming only at a few things, they conquered;—by laying a solid foundation, they could erect a noble superstructure.

2. An evil similar to the preceding is, a multiplicity of books.

Whatever advantages we may derive from having access to an extensive library when our educational career is completed, we can derive few before that period has arrived. For the student is thus tempted to read other works than those which ought to engage his attention; and, by being diverted from the main object of his pursuit, he never advances beyond the mere elements. We do not deny that much superficial knowledge has sometimes been acquired by this means, but this is not of much value, nor of much practical utility: what we recommend is, the acquisition of solid, and not of heterogeneous and superficial knowledge, of vigorous and not of desultory, mental habits. We need scarcely say, that the same remarks are equally applicable with respect to the numerous periodicals at present issuing from the press. However advantageous they may be at a subsequent period, as sources of relief as well as of information, they are not adapted to extend the knowledge or improve the habits of the young pupil, or of him who wishes to stndy systematically.

We would, therefore, recommend the young and earnest student to procure, by the aid of some experienced friend, the best book on any subject, and confine himself to that. For the possession of several on the same subject is, to a learner, a temptation to forego thought, and to turn at every difficulty from one to the other. Besides, as these works may be different both in arrangement and mode of explanation, the mind by this means becomes bewildered and not instructed, and unable to retain and apply the facts contained in any of them.

3. The third obstacle to real improvement is, that of hurrying through an author.

When a man proceeds more quickly than the understanding and a due examination of the subject will permit, it may be truly said,

that the faster he travels, the further he is from the right road. He may thus devour whole libraries, and yet possess no solid knowledge. His eyes have glided with rapidity over the pages, but his ideas have vanished like the shadows of a cloud flying over a field in a summer's day. Now, if the young student will only consider for a moment, he will readily perceive that this is not the way to gain knowledge. Sufficient time and carnest labour, are the price which knowledge demands.

4. The fourth obstacle to knowledge is, that of changing the books or the object of pursuit.

There are individuals who can never be charged with having read a book through, be it ever so hastily; for they read a little in one and then lay it aside for another, which in its turn shares the same fate as its predecessor; or, perhaps, they commence quite a different branch of study. Fully resolved now to prosecute with vigour this last chosen subject, they purchase the necessary books, &c., but, alas! some kind associate interferes, some lecture is to be heard, or some great meeting is to be attended, and this changes their views again. Individuals of this class may be compared to a man perpetually changing his route, always setting off, but never arriving at the place of destination.

We have known individuals of respectable talents and tolerably industrious habits, anxious also to obtain knowledge, who have never derived any satisfaction from the efforts which they have made. After having formed their plan, and pursued it for some time with diligence, they have perhaps mingled in some company in which the particular subject of their study has been depreciated, and, simply from their inability to reply to the objections which have been adduced, they have been tempted to relinquish it, and begin another. But they should have remembered, that though they were unable to give a reply, yet a reply, and a satisfactory one too, might perhaps have been given. All that an individual should do in this case, therefore, is to re-examine the reasons for his pursuing this or that study; and if, from just reasoning, and talking the matter over with some person older and more qualified to decide than himself, he should feel convinced of the benefits to be ultimately derived, let him make a determined stand against all opposition; for want of success is frequently attributable to waste of energy, rather than to deficiency of abilities. Indeed, it will generally be found, that great attainments depend more upon the adoption of a proper method, and perseverance in carrying it out, than upon great natural endowments; for, faculties apparently moderate, become, by proper discipline. strong and vigorous; and "energy of mind, like power in mechanism,

if once attained, may be directed and applied to a variety of objects."

5. The fifth obstacle to our progress in knowledge is, pursuing it in a desultory manner.

Though a certain degree of variety may occasionally contribute to render study agreeable, and though it may sometimes be necessary to forego study altogether, and enter into lively conversation, or engage in some proper amusement, that the mind may be refreshed, yet these interruptions must neither be long nor frequent, lest a habit of idleness or listlessness be engendered. It will be found that a regular and temperate application of the mind to study, will enable a man to acquire more knowledge, and with greater ease, than the most intense study, with long or frequent intermissions.

6. The last obstacle which we shall notice is, that of wandering from the subject.

There are individuals, and not a few, who, on reading an author, frequently stop, not to think of what they are reading, but to musc. Some extraneous idea has occurred to their minds which absorbs their attention. and prevents them from proceeding. Now, this habit of reverie or musing, almost inevitably gives the imagination an undue influence, and, perhaps, more than any other quality, unfits the mind for making any advances in knowledge.

LESSON 117.—Exercise 130.—Page 187.

2. HABITS WHICH CONTRIBUTE TO ADVANCE OUR PROGRESS.

After having pointed ont those habits which retard our improvement, I now proceed to explain those which will advance our progress.

7.—1. The first thing is, to form a proper plan of study.

In forming his plan, the student should take into account his present acquirements. In the great majority of instances of those who are their own instructors, it will be found better to begin with works containing the rudiments of any Art or Science rather than with larger Treatises.

By thus beginning at the Elements, the road is rendered more easy and pleasant, and the mind becomes gradually prepared to comoat with difficulties. Whatever time is devoted to this preparatory training, is so much time gained. On the contrary, by commencing with subjects that are difficult, the mind is put to a stretch beyond its strength, and, like the body strained at lifting too heavy a weight, frequently has its force broken, and is rendered unfit for vigorous exertions in future.

Assuming, then, that the student has seen sufficient reason for adopting the plan we have proposed, we would nrgo the necessity of perseverance; for, however excellent a plan may be of itself, it will be totally useless without a firm, determined persecurance on the part of the student. He must, henceforth, reject the absurd prattle of those who are constantly asserting, that method and rules are unnecessary for geniuses. High excellence, be it ever remembered, nover was attained by the greatest and noblest of Nature's sons, but by the constant application of all the mental faculties. "It is a common, but a very ill-grounded prejudice," remarks the author of "The Pursuit of Knowledge," "to imagine that anything like regularity or diligence is either impracticable to high genius or unfavourable to its growth and exercise. Perfect selfcontrol is the crowning attribute of the very highest genius, which, 50 far, therefore, from unfitting its possessor to submit, either in the management of his time or the direction of his thoughts, to the restraints of arrangement and system, enables him, on the contrary, to yield to them as if he felt them not; and which, by excrting this supremacy over itself, achieves, in fact, its greatest triumphs. It is true, that its far-seeing eye will often discern the error or inadequacy of theories and rules of discipline, which, to a narrower vision, may seem perfect and incontrovertible, and will, accordingly, violate them with sufficient audacity. But, when it does so, it is out of no spirit of wanton ontrage, or from any inaptitude to take npon itself the obligations of a law; but merely because it must of necessity reject the law that is attempted to be imposed upon it, in order to be enabled to obey a higher and more comprehensive law of It would be well if those would think of this, who, feeling within themselves merely a certain excitement and turinlenee of spirit, the token, it may be, of awakening powers, but as certainly the evidence of their immaturity and weakness, mistake their feverish volatility, and unsettledness of purpose, for what they have been taught to call the lawlessness of genius; and thereupon fancy it is incumbent upon them to fly from all manner of restraint, as perilous to their high prerogative. Genius is neither above law, nor opposed to it; but, provided only that the law to which it is proposed to subject it be one worthy of its obedience, finds its best strength, as well as its most appropriate embellishment, in wearing its fetters. Art, which is the manifestation of genius, is equally the manifestation of jindgment; which instead, therefore, of being something irreconcilable with genius, may, from this truth, be discerned to be not only its most natural ally, but, in all its highest creations, its indispensable associate and fellow-labourer."

8.—2. The second requisite for the attainment of knowledge is, the habit of fixing our undivided attention upon the subject under consideration.

Want of success in study arises frequently, not so much from the nature of the subject itself, as from the difficulty we experience in preventing our thoughts from wandering.

The first step to be taken in order to fix the attention, is to remove all those obstacles and temptations which would retard our progress. A variety and recurrence of outward objects, have great influence in distracting the attention; the diligent student must, therefore, withdraw to retirement and silence, and thus preclude, in some degree, the solicitations which arise from external things.

But there are other enemies besides those-from without. The memory and imagination are ever active in withdrawing our attention from the proper subjects of study. To these may be added, restlessness, impatience, anxiety, and whatever tends to agitate the mind or depress the spirits. But, from whatever source, and in whatever shape, the impediments to attention spring up, the student must endeavour to throw them off with spirit and determination; for nothing important can be attained without close and strenuous application. Whatever difficulty may attend our first efforts in the attainment of this valuable object, repetition will render every effort easier, and practice will induce the habit.

One expedient, sometimes adopted when the attention begins to flag, is to read aloud; another is to close the book, and try to recollect or write down what we have been reading.

9.—3. A third requisite is, rightly and fully to understand the meaning of an author; for, unless we accustom ourselves to affix to every word and sentence its proper signification, our ideas of the subject will be indistinct, and our conclusions erroneous.

First. Consider the signification of the words and phrases, according to the import usually attached to them by persons of the same nation, and about the same time as that in which the author lived.—This rule is important in ascertaining the exact modern meaning of several terms employed in the authorized version of the Scriptures, but which have become obsolete in the sense understood two centuries ago. The same remark may be made with regard to many words occurring in Chaucer, Shakspeare, Spenser, and other writers of that period.

Secondly. Compare the words and phrases used by an author in one place with the same or kindred words and phrases used by

him in other places; these are generally called parallel passages. This rule is particularly applicable with respect to the Scriptures.

Thirdly. Observe the scope and design of the writer in that particular chapter, section, or paragraph, in which the word or phrase occurs, and this will assist in ascertaining the true meaning.

Fourthly. Consider not only the speaker, but the persons to whom the speech is directed, the circumstances of time and place, the temper and spirit of the speaker, as well as the temper and spirit of the hearers.

Fifthly. In matters of dispute, we should never, from any prejudice of party spirit, warp the sense of the writer to our own opinion, but fairly and honestly understand it as the author intended it.

Sixthly. It has been recommended, with respect to a work of importance, first to read it through in a rather cursory manner, previously to our reading it with studious attention; because, there may be several difficulties which cannot be distinctly understood, without a clearer comprehension of the author's whole scheme. In such treatises, many difficulties which present themselves at first, may be solved as we proceed. Those passages, however, which require more than ordinary attention, should be marked for a closer examination afterwards.

10.-4. A fourth requisite is, to discriminate between true and false reasoning.

This is one of the most important, and one of the most difficult of all the requirements that we have enumerated; and to be fully acted upon, requires a gradual procedure. Thus, it would be absurd to expect a boy of fourteen or sixteen, or even an adult who has not been much accustomed to attend to a train of reasoning, to accertain on which side the truth lies, from the arguments adduced by Dr. Whately in favour of the Syllogism, and those given by Dr. Campbell in opposition to it. To determine in such cases with propriety, requires some experience in the art of argumentation.—As a General Rule the exercise of good strong sense, careful analysis, and freedom from passion, prejudice, or undue partiality is indispensable for distinguishing truth from error.

11.—5. A fifth requisite is, to endeavour to arrive at GENERAL PRINCIPLES on all the subjects to which our attention is directed.

In every kind of knowledge, whether art, science, or religion, there are some fixed principles with which we must become thereagily acquainted. These will serve as a safe guide in all our subsequent

inquiries, and frequently as a test of the truth or fallacy of our conclusions. Such is that great principle in natural philosophy, the doctrine of gravitation, or the mutual tendency of all bodies towards each other, by which Sir Isaac Newton accounted for a multitude of appearances in the heavenly bodies as well as on the earth. Such is that principle of morality given us by our Saviour, "Do to others as you would have them do to you;" which should be the rule of action towards our neighbour. And such, also, are those principles in religion, "That a rational creature is accountable to his Maker for his actions;" "That the soul of man is immortal," &c. We must, however, be careful to admit nothing as an established principle which is not just and true; for an error in principle may engender thousands in practice.

It is not, of course, to be expected that we can arrive at absolute certainty on every subject of inquiry, as there are many things beyond the limited comprehension of man. Yet, we must balance arguments as justly as we can, and decide according to the preponderance of evidence, be that ever so small. This course will enable us to form a probable opinion: and these probabilities frequently determine a thousand actions in human life, and sometimes even in matters of religion.

12.—6. To assist in arriving at a proper general conclusion in our reasoning and inquiries, no habit is more important than that of Patient Investigation.

To investigate; in the proper acceptation of the word, signifies to search for an unknown object, by observing and following the traces which it has left, in the path which leads to its unknown situation.—The habit of patient investigation, is equally requisite and beneficial in the investigation of individual character, historic facts, the phenomena of matter and of mind, and the still more important truths of Divine Revelation. It requires long and attentive observation in noticing and collecting a number of facts; discriminating judgment in ascertaining in what particulars they agree with, or, in what they differ from each other; and just reasoning in forming some general conclusion.

13.-7. Observation is another mode which contributes towards the attainment of Knowledge.

By Observation is here meant, the attentive notice which the mind takes of the occurrences of human life, whether they are sensible or intellectual, whether relating to persons or things, to ourselves or others. Whatever we see, hear, feel, or perceive by sense or con-

sciousness, may be included under this head.—The habit of careful Observation is, indeed, of the first importance in every department of life. The successful acquisition of every science depending upon experiment;—the attainment of knowledge of every kind depending upon the exercise of the perceptive faculty;—the cultivation of taste;—the common concerns of life;—the intercourses of civility;—and the efforts of benevolence;—require the constant exercise of this valuable habit.

- 14.—8. Attendance on Lectures is another means of improving in knowledge; but, it is necessary, that we should have some previous acquaintance with the subject, and afterwards, examine and treasure up the knowledge thus acquired. Lectures heard under these circumstances will be beneficial, and particularly if the Lecturer is eminently qualified to communicate his knowledge, and possessed of suitable apparatus.—Unless some such method as the one just recommended be adopted, attendance on lectures will degenerate into mere trifling.
- 15.—9. ARLE INSTRUCTIONS.—The habits just enumerated are requisite in every period of life. But in youth, the plan superior to all others for acquiring sound knowledge, studious habits, and a taste for neatness, is the employment of accomplished and energetic instructors. Under their guidance, the hazard of using inferior works, or of falling into desultory habits of study is avoided.

LESSON 118.—Exercise 131.—Page 168.

II. OF THE RETENTION OF OUR KNOWLIDGE.

- 16. The Recention of our knowledge depends upon the Memory; or that faculty by which the mind retains and recalls the ideas which it has previously received.
- a. The Importance of the memory has been much under-rated by several writers on education, who, perhaps, from having seen the memory alone cultivated during the period of childhood, have gone to the opposite extreme of scarcely cultivating it at all. But this is a most dangerous error; for, why labour to acquire what we cannot retain? Without memory, the mind of man would be a perfect blank, destitute of past impressions, past reasonings, past conclusions, past experience, and, consequently, unfit for the conduct of life and the pursuits of science.
- b. The memory, if judiciously cultivated, assists the judgment; for a proper conclusion depends, in some measure, on a survey and comparison of several things placed together before the mind.

When we set these various objects before us, we are then enabled to determine that such and such ideas are to be joined or disjoined, to be affirmed or denied, and this in consistency with the other ideas connected with the same subject. Now, there cannot be this comprehensive survey of many things without a tolerable memory; and, as we can judge of the future only by reviewing things that are past, it will frequently happen, that by the omission of one important idea or object, our conclusion is rendered erroneous.

- c. The ready and accurate recollection of words and their different flexions, of elementary principles, definitions, and formulae, is of great and almost essential importance in the acquisition of knowledge; and when this readiness and accuracy of memory have not been early cultivated, the difficulty of acquiring facility in any one branch of knowledge is considerably increased.
- d. Every one knows that the mere communication to others of the substance of an eloquent passage which we have heard or read, produces a very different impression on the minds of the hearers from what it would have done, had it been delivered in the exact words of the author or speaker.
- 17.—1. CULTIVATION OF THE MEMORY.—1. The first requisite in the cultivation of the memory is, the diligent and vigorous exercise of the attention; for, when the attention is strongly fixed on any subject, that subject is more readily apprehended, and much longer retained in the mind. If, therefore, we wish to possess a retentive memory, we must avoid running from subject to subject, and merely skimming over the surface of things: we must dwell upon a subject if we wish the impression to be permanent.
- 2. A clear and distinct perception of things is highly conducive to their retention. So, also, is a proper selection of those things which we wish to remember.
- 3. Arrangement greatly assists the memory. So numerous are the details, facts, and principles, which ought to be recollected, that, to be able to recall them in their proper relations, and to apply them to the various purposes of argument or illustration, it is absolutely necessary to classify them under their appropriate heads. This rule is one of the greatest importance. And it is no little recommendation of a treatise, that, whilst its arguments are clearly apprehended by the mind, the arrangement of its different parts is easily retained by the memory.
- 4. The principle of association contributes in giving strength and facility to the operations of the memory, and, particularly in those branches of knowledge which have a common basis, or which bear upon a common object.

- 6. A frequent review and careful repetition of the knowledge which we have acquired, have a great influence in imprinting it on the memory. For this purpose it is useful, at the end of a chapter or section, to close the book and try to recollect all that you have read. Proceed in this manner through the whole work, and at the end, recapitulate the leading facts. When one work on any subject has been thus studied, all additional facts, derived from whatever source, may be easily ranged under their appropriate heads.
- 6. Talking over to a friend, what we have been reading or hearing, is another excellent means of impressing it upon the memory. Even talking aloud to one's self, has been adopted by individuals who have not had an opportunity of conversing with others.
- 7. Another means of strengthening the memory and improving the power of expression, is frequently to commit to memory, in the most accurate manner (not indeed till they are understood), edect portions from the best writers, and repeat them to some friend. Additional considerations may be given to recommend the judicious adoption of this practice. When the noble sentiments and exact expressions of great men are thus well impressed upon the mind, they not only improve and gratify it, but form, as it were, the germs of future thought and excellence. Ideas, unconnected with words, fade from the memory much sooner than when they are so connected. "In sickness, and often in old age," remarks Dr. Carpenter, "the reasoning powers become languid; and the vigour of the mind, which would supply a succession of interesting thoughts, is lost under the pressure of disease or gradual decay. In such circumstances, tho mind dwells upon the present impressions of pain or weakness, and can scarcely raise itself above them; but if the memory has been well stored, in the early part of life, with useful and interesting combinations of words, they will often reenr, at such periods, without an effort and without fatigue, and furnish subjects of thought which will soothe and even cheer. They who are subject to any degree of mental depression, disabling them from netive efforts to point ont a channel for their thoughts, often find such suggestions of the memory an important relief to them. And we need not say to those who have a religious turn of mind, that these remarks are peculiarly applicable to these devotional compositions and expressions which, where they have been early and deeply impressed on the mind, occur at the call of association to support, to strengthen. and to comfort; and which, thus suggested by the memory, have, in innumerable instances, allayed the emotions of passion and desire. or ponred balm into the wounded heart."

LESSON 119.—Exercise 132.—Page 189.

ON THE READY APPLICATION OF OUR KNOWLEDGE.

- 18. The READY APPLICATION of our knowledge depends on Conversation, Reflection, and Composition.
- 19. Conversation.—Reading, Study, and Retirement, are necessary to give solidity to our knowledge; to render it easy and familiar, it must frequently become the subject of our conversation. The man who has read and thought much, but who has been accustomed to a solitary life, will frequently, in company, be at a loss for words to express himself readily, even upon those subjects with which he is the most familiar; and, thus, undiscerning persons may attribute to ignorance what is due only to want of practice.

We would, therefore, recommend the student to attach himself, if possible, to a few select individuals of industrious and virtuous habits, who would be disposed to study the same subject as himself, and adopt the same books. In this case, he will find the following hints of service:—

- 20.—1. When a portion of a book has been read, let it become the subject of conversation. By this means, not only will the information be impressed upon the mind, and some parts, perhaps, rendered much plainer than they were before, but, it may be ascertained whether or not the opinions which have been formed are correct. In some cases, we may see reasons to modify them, in others, perhaps, to change them altogether. Thus, the defects of our own private meditation may be remedied by the superior knowledge, or by the judicious remarks of our friends. And thus, also, those peculiarities of manner, as well as of sentiment, which are frequently contracted by confined and solitary study, are removed, and we learn to express our sentiments in a style which is calculated to render them pleasing and instructive.
- 2. In free and friendly conversation, our intellectual powers are more animated, and our spirits act with superior vigour in the pursuit of truth. By mixing with men whose minds are nearly on a level with our own, the fire of a laudable emulation is kindled, and new and admirable thoughts are frequently elicited. Old and useful facts, also, are brought to remembrance, and the hidden treasures of knowledge, with which reading, observation, and study, had before furnished the mind, are unfolded and displayed.

- 3. It must, however, be distinctly borne in mind, that, in such conversation, everything that tends to provoke passion should be utterly banished. No sharp language, no sarcasms or biting jests, should ever be allowed; no invidious consequences should be drawn from another's opinions, no wilful perversion of another's meaning, nor any absurd construction of an innocent mistake; nor should there be any triumph, even when there is evident victory on our side. The impartial search of truth requires calmness and serenity, temper and candour, and not passion, pride, and clamour.
- 21. Reflection.—By the term Reflection is meant, the attention of the mind to its own internal operations, respecting those ideas which it has acquired, and from which ideas it produces others, as capable of becoming the subjects of its contemplation, as any of those which it has received from external objects. It is by reflection that we perceive the analogy between the different parts of knowledge, improve upon the hints of others, and penetrate into art or science more deeply than our predecessors have penetrated.

Thus, Reflection may justly be said to perform the same office to the mind as the stomach does to the body. For, as a healthy stomach, by digestion, changes the form of the food which it has received by extracting whatever contributes to nonrish the body: so, habitual reflection, by frequently turning over its intellectual stores, by contemplating them in a variety of aspects, by carefully examining and comparing the different parts, and ascertaining their relative connection as to cause, consequence, or dependence, is gradually led to feel a deep and growing interest in the subject, and to acquire more extensive and comprehensive views of its nature and utility. Hence, originate new and nobler views of the subject, fresh and beantiful combinations, a more intimate and natural arrangement of the several parts, and more apposite and striking illustrations than have hitherto been known to exist.—As Reflection, however, is one of the most important, so it is one of the most difficult exercises of the mind: and, to become habitual, will require for years the atmost determination of the student to persevere.

22. Composition.—At the close of a chapter or portion of a work, the student is recommended frequently to express, in writing, as much of the subject as he can recollect.

This method will bring to the test the extent and accuracy of his knowledge. We are apt to imagine, if we can express correlves tolerably well on any subject in conversation, that our ideas are, consequently, clear and accurate. But, the moment we attempt to embody them in writing, we perceive our deficiencies, we find that

the boundaries of our knowledge are much narrower than we were willing to believe, that the chain of thought which appeared to us entire, is, in many parts, weak and defective.

By instituting a comparison between our own efforts and the original, we shall also discover to what extent we have succeeded in retaining the significancy and appropriateness of the atuhor's expressions, and the correctness of his construction; and thus, we shall gradually acquire an extensive vocabulary and an improved diction.

LESSON 120.—Exercise 133.—Page 189.

CONCLUSION.

23. Reasons showing that the improvement of the Understanding is only a means to a specific end, by serving as an auxiliary to the better knowledge and regulation of ourselves.

The first object of every rational man should be,-the knowledge of himself. "Man, know thyself," was a precept so estimable to the ancients, as to be attributed to divine inspiration. It is, however, a sentiment more praised than understood. We attend to the various objects around us, and to our ordinary pursuits, but, of the nature of our faculties, passions, and affections, we frequently form only a faint conception, or a very partial estimate. If the cultivation of our faculties is essentially necessary to preserve us from ignorance and error, the regulation of our passions and affections is not less necessary to preserve us from vice and folly. For, he who possesses an intimate acquaintance with himself, and a due control over his passions, may meet most of the changing scenes and unexpected temptations of life with becoming fortitude and prudence: whilst he who is destitute of these qualities, though admired for the brilliancy of his wit and the extent of his learning, can never enjoy that inestimable blessing-peace of mind.

But the knowledge of ourselves, like every other valuable branch of knowledge, requires a regular and gradual procedure in its attainment. In the intellectual and moral, as well as in the material world, whatever is intended for strength and durability advances by slow degrees to maturity; and as Nature, though slow, is ever operative, we ought to follow her plan, and be guided by her example. The man who seldom considers the reasons for his own actions, and does not habitually strive to surpass his former self, is not making progress in self-knowledge. To become acquainted with ourselves, we must scrutinize the operations of our own minds and the excursions of the imagination, and at the close of each day call to mind

every transaction, and ascertain whether or not we have done all things honourably and indiciously. This practice will induce us to be vigilant and circumspect, and give us a better acquaintance with the motives and aims of our different enterprises and actions. In observing important transactions and interesting events, we should endeavour to trace them to the causes and motires from which ther sprang: to observe in what manner certain actions contribute to an individual's advancement in the ways of virtue, or to his downward course in the road of vice. And as human nature, in all ages and in every country, is the same, though varied in its developments by modifying circumstances, the careful perusal of ancient and modern history, and of well-written biography, will greatly contribute towards self-knowledge and self-improvement, as it will furnish the min-l with maxims and rules of conduct useful in similar cases. Knowledge derived, however, from these sources, ought, as we have before observed, to be rectified by daily observation, according to place and circumstance, and applied with discrimination and sound judgment.

. 24. Understanding our Duties.—The first beneficial result arising from self-knowledge is the conviction of the necessity of understanding what are the various duties of our respective stations; for no man can perform duties, of the nature of which he is ignorant. To have our knowledge to seek when it should be applied, must be truly painful and humiliating. But to have our minds well stored in this respect before we take our stations in life, and to understand our duties thoroughly, will give us a confidence in ourselves unknown to the idle and ignorant.

Fortunate, therefore, will it be for every youth to ascertain beforehand, what are the qualifications suited to his intended station, that he may judge of his own fitness for it, or turn his mind to such exercises and attainments as are appropriate, and likely to be most beneficial in assisting him. If the station in which he intends to move requires great and various knowledge, he will take core to area a premature entrance upon those duties, the nature of which is difficult and arduous. He will determine to exect in those attainments which are preparatory to his future duties,—in the studies usually presented by a liberal education; as superiority in these will generally conduce to similar superiority when he shall eventually take the station for which this labour is intended to qualify him.

25. The Performance of our Duries.—Self-knowledge not only impresses upon us the necessity of understanding our duties, but of performing them uprightly and conscientiously; that is, with all the exactness which our business, profession, or engagement implies.

and which an enlightened conscience approves. Nothing short of this will satisfy the honourable mind. Such a principle of action may not at first be appreciated. Years, perhaps, may be requisite to establish its claims to confidence; but, sooner or later, unswerving uprightness of conduct will be triumphant.

In order, however, to be upright, we must be decided. He who is accustomed to think for himself, to consider a subject in all its bearings, and who, at the same time, possesses control over his passions, is not likely to be diverted from his purpose by any temptation which may come in his way, or any unfounded objection to his plans. He may be slow and deliberate in deciding, but a decision once formed upon right principles, will be acted upon.—The faithful man will perform not merely the easy, but the difficult and burdensome duties. He will be true to his engagements, and allow neither ease, nor company, nor amusements, nor difficulties, nor opposition to interfere with the performance of them.

- 26. As, however, there is nothing to give Reason the perfect control and government of appetite and passion, nor to support and perpetuate an undeviating course of pure and upright conduct, but the influence of right principles, it is of the utmost importance that we ascertain the correctness of those principles which we adopt. Now, the centre of truth, of purity, of holiness, is God. He is and must be the source of every blessing, and of every good. ciple and that only will endure and be influential, which regards God; refers to His law, acts as under His eye, and obtains its vigour from a sense of responsibility and of a future judgment. Every deviation from God's revealed Will must be error, and, if persisted in, must necessarily lead to disappointment and misery. To reject Divine Revelation is to reject that which has always been found to be the only rafe guide through all the chequered scenes of this troublesome True, there are several things in Revelation too difficult for our comprehension, just as in Nature there are phenomena the causes and operations of which are totally incomprehensible to the loftiest intellect. But, whatever regards our duty to God and man, the love and practice of truth, justice, holiness, and benevolence, and of speaking and acting fairly, and honourably with one another, is clearly and unmistakably set forth in Holy Scripture.
- 27. Young and ambitious minds, however, are apt to object to Christianity, because many men, distinguished for their mathematical or scientific attainments, have been adverse to Revelation. It is not difficult to account for such instances. Every one is aware

that an individual may be profoundly clever in one branch of knowledge, and yet be totally ignorant of another; he may, for example, be an excellent chemist, without possessing any knowledge of history, geography, &c.; he may be a profound mathematician, without having any acquaintance with languages, poetry, cloquence, or anything beyond his own immediate study. But will any one say that these subjects are less useful, or less important because they are unknown to such an individual? And should we think that man qualified to pronounce upon the truth or falsehood of a proposition which he has never examined? Certainly not.—Now, apply these remarks to Religion, and we shall see, that this, like every other subject, requires examination before we can ascertain the validity of its claims.

28. There is another and perhaps a stronger motive than mere ignorance, which influences many men in rejecting the Truth of Christianity; and that is, the difficult nature of its requirements, and the uncompromising purity of its precepts. A man naturally dislikes what is opposed to his practice; and thus, as Cowper truly says—

"Errors in the life breed errors in the brain, And these reciprocally those again."

Hence, too, the eagerness in man to depreciate what condemns him, to distort and pervert the meanings of words from their proper signification, and to introduce others more agreeable to his own debased practices. But this shuffling, this perversion will not alter nor escape the consequences. Conscience, which might be made the approving Angel of Comfort, will thus become the Accusing Demon of Misery.

29. When, however, the claims of Christianity have been fairly and earnestly investigated, so complete are the evidences in favour of its Divine anthority, that full conviction has been produced on the minds of men the most distinguished in the several departments of science. Without enumerating a host of eminent characters who have devoted themselves to the profession of teachers of religion, where shall we find individuals superior, if equal, to Bacon, Newton, Boyle, and Locke; to Leibnitz, Euler, and Baron Haller; to Milton, Hale, Sir W. Jones, Dr. Johnson, and Dr. Adam Smith? These were all laymen, firm believers in Christianity, because they had studied the subject.

True, and sadly too true, that many things have been said and done, ostensibly for the sake of Christianity, which, however, never sprang from it, but, on the contrary, have been in direct violation of Its principles and its spirit.—To Obtain Noble Ends by Noble Means is, and ever has been, the soul-stirring Principle of Pure Christianity. The evangelization of the world, the subordination of the human heart and intellect to the Will of God, to the manifestation of brotherly affection, and to the fulfilment of earthly Duties, are surely objects worthy the Divine Mission of our Lord, and the labours and sufferings of His Apostles. Though degeneracy of conduct and corruption of doctrine soon manifested themselves among professing Christians; still, wherever the pure Oracles of God were permitted to be read, there the Light of Christianity exhibited its immutable principle of action, to enlighten the dull intellect, to strengthen the wavering resolution, to encourage the struggling spirit to do and maintain, through life, whatever is true, honest, just, pure, lovely, and of good report. (Phil. iv. 8.)

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